LINGUISTIC SURVEY OF INDIA

VOL. III.

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY

PART I

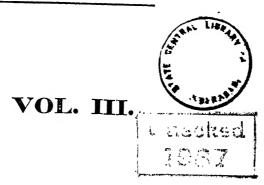
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SPECIMENS OF THE TIBETAN DIALECTS,
THE HIMALAYAN DIALECTS,
AND THE NORTH ASSAM GROUP

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LINGUISTIC SURVEY OF INDIA



TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY

PART I

GENERAL INTRODUCTION,
SPECIMENS OF THE TIBETAN DIALECTS,
THE HIMALAYAN DIALECTS,
AND THE NORTH ASSAM GROUP

COMPILED AND EDITED BY

G. A. GRIERSON, K.C.I.E., PH.D., D.LITT., LL.D. I.C.S. (RETD.)

MOTILAL BANARSIDASS
DELHI :: VARANASI :: PATNA

MOTILAL BANARSIDASS BUNGALOW ROAD, JAWAHARNAGAR, DELHI-7 NEPALI KHAPRA, VARANASI (U. P.) ASHOK RAJ PATH, (OPP. PATNA COLLEGE), PATNA (BIHAR)

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October 20, 1966.

Dear Sri Sundarlal,

Thank you very much for undertaking the task of republication of Grierson's LINGUISTIC SURVEY OF INDIA. It is a pleasure to know that you were able to complete the republication of the 50 volumes of Max Muller's 'Sacred Books of the East' within 3 years. Your work, I may assure you, is of the greatest value to the intellectuals of the world.

· With the best wishes,

Yours sincerely,

(S. Radhakrishnan)

Sri Sundarlal, Motilal Banarsidass, Post Box 1586, Bungalow Road, Jawaharnagar, Delhi-7

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INTRODUCTORY NOTE.

THE present volume deals with the Tibeto-Burman languages of India. For convenience it has been divided into three parts, viz.:—

Part I, Tibeto-Burman languages of Tibet, the Himalayas, and North Assam.

Part II, the Bodo, Nāgā, and Kachin groups.

Part III, the Kuki-Chin and Burma groups.

The materials for Part I were originally entrusted to Professor Conrady of Leipzig. After he had analysed part of the materials, but before he had thrown the results into a connected form, he was compelled to abandon the task by a call to other duties.

The materials and his notes were then made over to my Assistant, Dr. Sten Konow of Christiania, Norway, who went over the whole work again and prepared the part in the form in which it is now presented to the public.

Dr. Konow has also prepared the Kachin section of Part II, and the whole of Part III.

Dr. Konow has been allowed complete liberty for displaying individuality of treatment, and the volumes prepared by him are entirely his work. I have, however, no hesitation in accepting his views, and, as Editor of the entire series of volumes of the Linguistic Survey of India, I accept full responsibility for all statements contained in them.

GEORGE A. GRIERSON.

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Verbal noun	•	•		•	•		*		•	•		•	•		•		٠		-		•	•	'	*			
Compound verb		•	٠		•	٠		•		•	•		•	•	H			•		٠		*		•	•		ŧ
Negative particle		•		•	•		•	,	•	•		*	•		•		*		*		*	•		*		•	ŧ.
Interrogative particle		1	•		٠	•		٠	•	•	•		•	•		•		•		•			•		•		ě
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LINGUISTIC SURVEY OF INDIA.

SYSTEM OF TRANSLITERATION ADOPTED.

A .- For the Devn-nagari alphabet, and others related to it-

भा था, भा था, भा था, भा था, भा था, भा था, पह ए है, ऐ बां, औ 0, औ ठ, औ वथ. u gha w na Toha Tohha Tja un kha स वृक्ष Hiha Sha Z 1a & tha T da 3 dha T na स ta य tha र da धंdha न na The pha # ba H bha H ma U 1/11 य ya ₹ ra स la a va or wa W Aha T ha ढ rha Tra æ la As lha.

Visarga (:) is represented by b, thus man: kramasah. Anuswāra (') is represented by m, thus fit simh, in vams. In Bengali and some other languages it is pronounced ng, and is then written ng; thus and bangsa. Anunāsika or Chandra-bindu is represented by the sign over the letter nasalized, thus, in mē.

11.—For the Arabic alphabet, as adapted to Hindostani—

Tanwin is represented by n, thus, by fauran. Alifi mageura is represented by a;—thus, was daised.

In the Arabic character, a final silent h is not transliterated,—thus, wie banda.

When pronounced, it is written,—thus, it gunāh.

Vowels when not pronounced at the end of a word, are not written in transliteration. Thus, we ban, not bana. When not pronounced in the middle of a word or only slightly pronounced in the middle or at the end of a word, they are written in small characters above the line. Thus (Hindi) that dekheta, pronounced dekhta; (Kāśmiri) that is a far, pronounced kor; (Bihārī) that is a far, pronounced kor; (Bihārī)

- C.—Special letters peculiar to special languages will be dealt with under the head of the languages concerned. In the meantime the following more important instances may be noted:—
 - (a) The ts sound found in Marāṭhī (虫), Puṣḥṭō (ゃ), Kāśmīrē (ゃ, 虫), Tibetan (ま), and elsewhere, is represented by <u>ts</u>. So, the aspirate of that sound is represented by <u>ts</u>.
 - (b) The dz sound found in Marāṭhī (ज), Puṣḥtō (♠), and Tibetan (♠) is represented by dz, and its aspirate by dzh.
 - (c) Kāśmīrī (eq) is represented by ñ.
 - (d) Sindhī , Western Panjābī (and elsewhere on the N.-W. Frontier) i, and Puṣḥtō i or are represented by n.
 - (e) The following are letters peculiar to Pushtō:—

 \$\forall t\$ is or \$\frac{dz}{n}\$, according to pronunciation; \$\frac{d}{n} \cdots \
 - (f) The following are letters peculiar to Sindhī:—

D.—Certain sounds, which are not provided for above, occur in transcribing languages which have no alphabet, or in writing phonetically (as distinct from transliterating) languages (such as Bengali) whose spelling does not represent the spoken sounds. The principal of these are the following:—

á, represents the sound of the a in all.

```
ă,
                               a in hat.
                           "
ĕ,
                               e in met.
                          "
Ö,
                               o in hot.
                               é in the French était.
0,
                               o in the first o in promote.
δ,
                          " ö in the German schön.
                  "
ü,
                               ü in the
                                                 mühe.
                                            ,,
th,
                               th in think.
        "
                 "
dh.
                               th in this.
```

The semi-consonants peculiar to the Munda languages are indicated by an apostrophe. Thus, k', t', p', and so on.

E.—When it is necessary to mark an accented syllable, the acute accent is used. Thus in (Khōwār) ássistai, he was, the acute accent shows that the accent falls on the first, and not, as might be expected, on the second syllable.

THE TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY.

The Tibeto-Burman family is the most important group of Indo-Chinese languages spoken in British India.

The denomination 'Indo-Chinese languages' comprises an endless series of different forms of speech in India and China. They are all spoken by Mongolian races, and they all have some characteristics in common. The most important are the use of monosyllabic words and the so-called isolation, i.e., the absence of form-words and, consequently, of grammatical forms. Modifications such as are expressed by means of grammatical forms in Indo-European languages are indicated by putting side by side, according to fixed rules, words of which each retains its independence, without the possibility of a real inflexion.

It has been usual to consider the Indo-Chinese languages as forming one distinct linguistic family, but we now know that this cannot be the case. It has been shown that the monosyllabic bases, which were formerly considered as handed down from the oldest times are, at least in a great number of cases, derived from polysyllables. On the other hand, the grammatical system of isolation is by no means consistently maintained in all Indo-Chinese languages. Many of them are agglutinating, i.e., the various grammatical relations are indicated by means of form-words,—prefixes, suffixes, and infixes,—added to the bases. Some dialects have in this way developed a pretty full grammatical system. It has been shown that there is no fundamental difference between agglutinating and isolating languages, and the adoption of one or the other principle cannot be used as the chief starting point for the classification of a language.

The reasons for assuming a relationship between all Indo-Chinese languages have thus prove invalid, and it has been possible to distinguish, instead of one, two linguistic families, the one known as the Mön-Khmör family, and the other comprising Chinese, the Tai languages, and the Tibeto-Burman family.

A short account of the Mön-Khmer family will be found in the Introduction to Vol. II of this Survey. The Tai languages are closely related to Chinese, and the two form one distinct family as compared with the Tibeto-Burman forms of speech. Chinese does not fall within the scope of this Survey. The Tai group has been dealt with on pp. 59 and ff. of the second volume.

The Tibeto-Burman family comprises a long series of dialects spoken from Tibet

in the north to Burma in the south; and from Baltistan
in the west to the Chinese provinces of Ssechuan and

Yünnan in the east.

The greater portion of this district lies outside the territory included within the operations of this Survey, and we have no trustworthy information regarding the number of speakers. Local estimates have been forwarded from those districts which fall within the scope of this Survey. They will be given in detail under the head of the various sub-groups into which our treatment of the Tibeto-Burman family will be subdivided. In this place

we shall anticipate the detailed account and put together the totals for the sub-groups. We shall further add the figures returned at the Census of 1901. In comparing the two it must be borne in mind that the last Census was extended to Burma, which province was not included under the operations of this Survey.

The number of speakers were then returned as follows:—

										(Number of	speakers.
			Nau	e of g	roup.						Estimated number.	Census of 1901.
Tibetan .	•				•	,	•	•			45,024	235,229
Himalayan .	•	•	•	•	•				•		194,234	190,585
North Assam	•				•						36,910	41,731
Bodo	•	•	•		•	•					617,989	596,411
Nāgā . ,	•	•	•	•	•	•	•				292,799	247,780
Kachin .	•	•	•	٠	•		•				1,920	125,775
Kuki-Chin .		•	•	•	•			•			564,091	624,149
Burmese .	•	•	•	•			•	٠	٠		62,652	7,498,794
T'otal	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		1,815,619	9,560,454

Of the 9,560,454 speakers of Tibeto-Burman languages enumerated at the last Census, only 1,803,611 were found within the territory included in this Survey. The rest were enumerated in Burma.

It is impossible to form even an approximate idea of the number of speakers outside British India. The population of Tibet has been estimated at 6 million people. No estimates 'are available for the States of Nepal and Bhutan or for the number of speakers in China. We may say, however, that the total number of speakers of Tibeto-Burman languages can hardly be estimated at less than twenty millions.

The Tibeto-Burman languages are very closely related to the Siamese-Chinese. The Relation to Siamese-Chinese vocabulary is, to a great extent, the same. It will be sufficient to give some few examples. I shall give the words in Tibetan, Burmese, Khāmtī, and Chinese. Khāmtī has been chosen to represent the Tai family, because it falls within the scope of this Survey. With regard to Tibetan and Burmese, I shall give the written and not the spoken form.

		•			Tibetan.	Burmese.	Khāmtī.	Chinese,
One		•	• '		gchig	tach	lüng	yit
Two	•	•	•	•	gnyis	nhach	shang	ri
Three	•		•		goum	ŧħ≆	shām	să m
Four	. •	•	•	•	bahi	le	shi	set
Five	•		•	•	lnga	ngā	ha	ngu

						Tibetan.	Burmese.	Khāmtī.	Chinese
Six .	•			•	-	drug	khrok	hōk	luk
Seven	•	•	•			bdun	khwan-nhach	chet	ta'it
Eight	•	•	•	•		brgyad	rhach	pet	pat
Nine		•	•	•		dgu	kü :	kau	kieu
F en	•	•	•			bchu	chay	ship	ship
Hundred	ι.					brgya	ta-rā	pāk	pek
Die		•				sh i	<u>th</u> e	tai	ssi
Dog	•	•	•			khyi	khwe	mā	khiuen
Ear	•	•		•		rna	na	ping-hū	ri
Eye	•	•		•		m i g	myak	tā.	muk
Fire	•	•				me	mi	pha i	huo
Iair		•	•		-	skra	chhã	phōm.	sām
Head		•	•			mgo	khong	hō	hiep
Iorse			•			rta	mrang	mā	ma
Mouth		•	•			kha	khã-twang	shōp	kheu
Name		•	•			ming.	a-many	ohü	ming
Sun						nyi-ma	ne	wan	shit
ongue	•	•		•		lche	lhyā	lin	shet
ooth			•			\$0	thwa	khēð	ya
Vater						ohhu	76	nam	shui, ko

It will be seen that in many cases the correspondence is striking. Sometimes, as in the case of Tibetan rta, Chinese ma, horse, it is less apparent. The base-word is ra or rang. Tibetan r-ta contains an additional word ta, and the original base is only represented by the single letter r. Chinese ma must be compared with Burmese mrang. It contains a prefix ma and ma-rang, mrang, has been contracted to ma.

It will be seen that the Tibeto-Burman dialects are, on the whole, more closely connected with Chinese than with Siamese. It is not, however, possible to bring the relationship under one distinct formula. There are numerous cross lines of affinity, and some dialects show more affinity with Siamese than with Chinese.

The correspondence between Tibeto-Burman and Siamese-Chinese is by no means restricted to vocabulary. They have also some words in common which are used to denote the same relations in time and space. In the terminology of Aryan grammar, we should say that some of the case and tense suffixes are the common property of both families. Thus the Tibetan genitive suffix gyi is identical with Chinese $ch\bar{c}$, which is used in the same way. The yo which is used to form a past tense in Siyin, Kōm, and other dialects, should be

compared with Chinese yeu. The o which is added to the principal verb in Tibetan is probably identical with Tai \bar{u} and so forth.

Such instances of correspondence are not, however, very numerous, and they do not play any important rôle in deciding the question of the relationship of the two families. They only show that a tendency towards agglutination must be ascribed to their common parent tongue.

Tibetan as well as Siamese and Chinese makes use of tones. The Tibetan tonesystem will be sketched later on. In this place it is suffi-Tones and phonetical system. cient to note that Professor Conrady's investigations have shown that it has been developed on the same lines, and according to the same principles, as is the case in Chinese and Tai. Moreover, the whole phonetic system must originally have been the same in the Tibeto-Burman and in the Siamese-Chinese families. Intransitive bases could not begin with hard, but only with soft, consonants. In all dialects, the soft initials have a tendency to develope into hard sounds, while transitive bases were formed from intransitives by hardening the initial consonant, and, at the same time, pronouncing the word in a higher tone. The raising of the tone and the hardening of the initial were probably both due to the existence of an old prefix before the base-word. These prefixes have been lost in Chinese, but the tones still show that they once existed. This common use of prefixes in the formation of words in the common parent tongue from which the Tibeto-Burman and Siamese-Chinese families have sprung, shows that that old form of speech in reality belonged to the agglutinating class. The difference between agglutination and isolation cannot, accordingly, be made the basis of a classification of languages. An agglutinating language can become isolating, and vice versa.

An account of the Tai tone-system and some general remarks on the tones in Indo-Chinese languages, based on Prof. Conrady's investigations, will be found on pp. 67 and ff. of the second volume of this Survey.

It has already been remarked that the speeches now under consideration are monosyllabic and, generally speaking, of the so-called isolat-Monosyllabic bases. Isolation. ing class, but that these peculiarities in all probability are not original features of the languages. Nevertheless, at the present day, we find them very prevalent. Generally speaking every monosyllabic base-word is incapable of inflexion. The unaltered and unchangeable bases are simply put together into sentences. There are no proper case and tense suffixes, and most bases can be used in more than one way, as nouns, as adjectives, or as verbs. Under such circumstances it might be expected that it is all but impossible to translate a sentence, there being no outer signs to show where we are to look for the subject and what word represents the verb. The confusion that is to be expected from this state of affairs, is remedied by means of a fixed order of words. Thus in Chinese, the subject comes first, then the verb, then the object, and genitives and adjectives precede the qualified noun. In Siamese the usual order is, likewise, subject, verb, object, but adjectives and genitives follow the qualified word. Compare the remarks on pp. 75 and f. of Vol. II.

It will be seen that the Tai languages agree with Chinese in using the order, subject, verb, object. The Tibeto-Burman languages, on the other hand, arrange the words of the sentence according to a different principle, viz., subject, object, verb. They also

make a much more extensive use of auxiliary words in order to connect the words of a sentence and to explain their mutual relationship. As a consequence of these important characteristics, the Tibeto-Burman languages stand out as a distinct family as compared with Tai and Chinese.

General character of Tibeto-Burman languages. find that the different varieties of some particular animal are denoted by means of different terms, where we should use one and the same word. For instance, in Lushēi we find nine words for 'ant' and twenty different translations of the one word 'basket.' It will be seen that there is a tendency to coin a separate word for every individual concrete conception. This peculiarity is shared by most languages spoken by tribes in a primitive stage of civilisation, and they are by no means peculiar to the Tibeto-Burman, or even to the Indo-Chinese forms of speech. Most Tibeto-Burman dialects are spoken by wild or semi-wild tribes, and it is accordingly only to be expected that in them this peculiarity should be so prominent.

Most Tibeto-Burman languages further evince a difficulty in forming words for abstract ideas. This is again a consequence of the uncivilized state of the tribes speaking them. We know from Chinese, and partly also from Tibetan, that such languages are quite able to form expressions for the most subtle niceties of human thought. It has been common to draw attention to the fact that languages such as Tibeto-Burman are unable to distinguish between form and substance, because they do not possess formwords, i.e., words which do not denote any substance or any material conception but simply the different ways of forming and arranging them in the mind. Professor Friedrich Müller of Vienna, in his compendium of comparative philology, says,—

'Such languages have no proper comprehension of form, and are quite unfit for the classification and combination of ideas. The principal reason is that they do not possess particles, i.e., words with a wider meaning, which support the act of thinking like algebraic formulas. When such languages are forced into modern conceptions, as, for instance, in translating the Bible, they are at once overcome by the substance; they conceive as substance what we conceive as form.

'The deficiency of such languages is, to no small extent, due to the fact that they do not possess a real verb, the whole expression starting from substantival conceptions.'

The history of the various Tibeto-Burman languages shows that many of them have developed a kind of inflexion by means of words which are now for all practical purposes particles. Although, as the example of Chinese shows, the absence of such particles does not, by any means, preclude the higher acts of thinking, most of these tongues, whether they possess these words or not, have nevertheless remained in the stage of individual conceptions and are unable to give expression to abstract ideas. The consequences of this state of affairs can be seen in several ways.

It has been already remarked that the vocabulary is richly developed, there being in most cases separate words for the most individual conceptions but few or no words to denote more general ideas. Thus several dialects prefer to use the word denoting an individual of their tribe instead of the general word 'man,' and we find translations such as $sing-ph\bar{o}$, man, in Singphō, and kha-ini, man, in Khami.

The same tendency towards individual conception of all objects can also be traced in the fact that many Tibeto-Burman dialects avoid using words such as 'hand,' 'foot,'

'father,' 'mother,' etc. They speak only of 'my hand,' 'thy hand,' 'his hand,' and so forth in the case of all words denoting relationship or parts of the body. Thus, Thādo has $k\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{a}$, my-father; $n\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{u}$, thy-mother; \bar{a} - $kh\bar{u}t$, his hand, but does not employ $p\bar{a}$, father, $n\bar{u}$, mother, or $kh\bar{u}t$, hand, alone. Similar idioms are common in dialects of the Bodo and Kuki-Chin groups and also in some Himalayan dialects.

The Bodo and Kuki-Chin groups also agree in using generic particles with numerals. The same is the case in Burmese. By means of such particles the numerals are restricted in their sphere and only apply to some special class of objects. The Burmese would not for example simply say 'one man,' but they would add a particle to the numeral in order to indicate the class to which the qualified word belongs. Thus, they say $l\bar{u}$ ta-yauk, man one-rational-being, i.e., one man; and palang $s'ay-l\tilde{u}$, bottle ten-round-things, or ten bottles.

Classes of words.

Classes of words.

distinguish between the different classes of words in the same way as Indo-European languages. The same word can often be used as a noun, as an adjective, and as a verb. The Tibeto-Burman dialects belong to that class of speeches regarding which Professor Friedrich Müller remarks that they do not possess a real verb. Their verb is a kind of noun, and instead of saying 'I go,' a Tibeto-Burman would say 'my going.' Under such circumstances it is not quite correct to speak of nouns, adjectives, and verbs. It would be better to speak of indefinite bases, of which the radical meaning is still so free and general that they can be used either as subjects or as predicates, and, therefore, as nouns, as adjectives, or as verbs at will.

It will, however, be more practical for our present purposes to use the well-known terms of Indo-European grammar, and the remarks which follow will therefore be classed under the usual heads of noun, adjective, verb, etc.

Nouns. The words used as nouns in Tibeto-Burman languages differ from the Indo-European nouns in many respects.

There is no grammatical gender, and such words as do not denote animate beings have no gender at all. The male and female gender of animate beings can, of course, be distinguished. There are often quite different words to denote the male and the female, a consequence of the common tendency to coin separate words for the most individual conceptions; or the natural gender is equally frequently distinguished by adding words meaning 'male,' 'female,' respectively. The different methods of denoting the gender have thus nothing to do with grammar.

The Indo-European noun has different forms for the singular and the plural, and often also for the dual. That is not the case in Tibeto-Burman. The number is frequently left to be inferred from the context, or else it is marked by adding numerals or words meaning 'many,' 'all,' 'several,' and so forth.

There is no proper declension. Different relations in time and space can, however, be indicated by suffixing words which we can call postpositions. Originally, these had a full meaning of their own, but many of them are now only used as postpositions, i.e., have become real particles. They cannot be called suffixes, because they are separable

Compare Max Müller's Letter to Chevalier Bunsen on the Classification of the Turanian Languages, p. 86.

and only added to the last of a number of connected words. Thus, they are added to an adjective which follows a noun and not to the qualified noun, while, if number is indicated by adding a numeral, an indefinite pronoun, or something of the sort after the principal noun, the postposition comes after this addition.

The most important case of Aryan grammar is the genitive. It is often left without any sign in Tibeto-Burman languages, the governed noun being simply put before the governing one. In other cases an element is added which looks like a suffix. Thus in Tibetan kyi, gyi, or i, and in Burmese $\bar{\imath}$. The Burmese $\bar{\imath}$ is also a demonstrative pronoun, and the same is probably the case with Tibetan kyi. Compare the remarks in the introduction to Tibetan, on p. 26, below. Similarly the so-called genitive suffixes of other Tibeto-Burman dialects can probably all be derived from demonstrative pronouns. An idiom such as Tibetan mi-i khyim, a man's house, thus literally means 'man-that house.' It will be seen that such forms are no real cases.

Adjectives are commonly undistinguishable from nouns in form. No fixed rule can be given regarding their position with reference to the noun they qualify. The rule in Tibetan is that they follow the qualified noun or, if they precede it, they are put in the genitive case. The practice in other dialects is inconsistent. The frequent dropping of every sign of the genitive sufficiently accounts for this state of affairs even if we consider the Tibetan rule as the original one. It will, however, be remarked later on that formerly the order of words must have been less fixed than it is at the present day.

Noun and adjective form a kind of compound, and postpositions are only added to the last component. This is of course a necessary consequence of the character of the Tibeto-Burman languages. There is no real inflexion, and the various relations in time and space are indicated but once in the case of several parallel words.

There is no comparative or superlative. Comparison is effected by adding postpositions to the compared noun in order to show that the meaning of the adjective is relative. Thus we say 'great as compared with him,' 'great from him,' 'great among all,' and so forth, instead of 'greater,' 'greatest,' respectively.

The numeral system is distinctly decimal. The rule for the formation of higher numbers in Tibetan and also in Chinese is to prefix the numerals 'one,' 'two,' etc., to 'ten,' etc. For instance, Tibetan bdun-chu, seven tens, seventy. Bchu-bdun, ten seven, on the other hand, means 'seventeen.' The same is the case in Burmese, Kachin, and in some other dialects such as Meithei, Shö, Mikir, etc. The common rule in the dialects belonging to the Bodo, Nāgā, and Kuki-Chin groups is, however, to suffix the multiplier. Compare Thādo, som-ngā, ten-five, fifty.

Several Himalayan languages make use of a different system in the formation of higher numbers, which are not counted in tens but in twenties. Thus Kanāw^{*}rī has nish nizzāū sai 'two twenties ten' for 'fifty.' The same system is also found in some dialects belonging to the Bodo group, and a separate word for 'twenty' is, moreover, common in several Kuki-Chin dialects. Similarly, Kachin has khun, twenty. In the

¹ Similarly in Persian, an Aryan language, the relationship of the genitive is indicated by the so-called isaffat, which is also of pronominal origin, though, in this case, the pronoun is relative and is appended to the governing, not to the governed noun.—G. A. G.

case of the Himalayan languages this state of affairs is probably due to the existence of a non-Tibeto-Burman element in the population. Compare the remarks in the introduction to those forms of speech, on pp. 179 and 273 below. It is impossible to decide whether a similar explanation holds good in the case of the remaining dialects.

The use in some dialects of generic particles with numerals has already been mentioned.

The personal pronouns are comparatively simple, but there are several nouns in use

as pronouns, the use of which is regulated by the laws of etiquette. Thus in Burmese the simple word for 'I' is ngā. It is, however, commonly replaced by other words, such as kywon-nuk, 'little slave,' when addressing an equal, kywon-dā, 'king's slave,' when addressing a superior, and so forth.

In some dialects we find different forms of the pronoun 'we,' one excluding and the other including the person or persons addressed. This is for instance the case in Gārō. A fully developed system of various forms of the pronoun of the first person is found in some Himalayan dialects such as Kanāwarī. The details will be found in the section of this volume dealing with Himalayan languages, and it will be seen that here we probably have to do with the influence of non-Tibeto-Burman forms of speech.

There is no relative pronoun in the Tibeto-Burman forms of speech. Some dialects have adopted the Aryan relatives, and Aryan constructions are commonly imitated in all dialects, at least in the translated specimens forwarded for the purposes of this Survey; but the indigenous Tibeto-Burman principle is to use a kind of participle instead. Thus, Burmese pyu-thi $th\bar{u}$, doing man, the man who does; Tibetan 'agro-ba-i tshong-pa-rnams, going of merchants, the merchants who go.

The formation of such participles differs in the different dialects, though we may observe that, as a general rule, they are treated as nouns qualifying another noun, and that hence, in Tibetan, they are usually put in the genitive case. The Burmese relative particle thi, written thany, is probably the demonstrative pronoun thi, that. Compare the remarks on the formation of the genitive in Tibeto-Burman languages.

The Tibeto-Burman verb is properly a noun. It is not capable of inflexion in person, number, or gender. In some Tibetan dialects we find a tendency to reserve certain forms for certain persons, and, in the Namsangiā Nāgā dialect, we apparently find a full system of conjugational forms. The same is also the case in other dialects, and more especially in some of those belonging to the Himalayan group, but the whole principle is foreign to Tibeto-Burman languages, and it is always due to the influence of other, different, forms of speech.

The nominal nature of the Tibeto-Burman verb is also apparent from the fact that the subject of transitive verbs is usually put in the case of the agent. Thus, instead of 'I strike' they say 'by-me striking.' The case of the agent is not, however, regularly used, and in the dialects of the Bodo group it has been almost entirely discarded. In such cases, the subject should, according to Aryan principles, be considered as a genitive qualifying the verbal noun which is used as a verb. In those dialects which regularly

insert pronominal prefixes before nouns governing a genitive, such prefixes are often also used before a noun performing the function of a verb. For instance, in Banjōgī we have kei-mā-ni kā-vūak, me-by my-striking, I strike.

It has already been remarked that the ordinary noun has only one number. If it is necessary to indicate the notion of plurality, this is done, not by means of suffixes, but by adding words meaning 'many,' 'all,' etc. The same is the case with the noun when used as a verb, although the addition of pluralizing words is not common. Compare idioms such as Yākhā cho-wā-chi, eatings, they ate.

The verbal noun can be used alone as a verb without any addition, but in many cases a particle is added in order to show that the action of the verbal noun really takes place. Such a particle is the o which is added to the principal verb of narrative sentences in Tibetan; thus, song-ng-o, he went.

It seems probable that such assertive particles, in most, if not in all, cases, are various forms of the verb substantive, which, in its turn, often performs the function of a demonstrative pronoun. Thus the common assertive particle in Siyin is hi, and the same word is also used as a verb substantive and a demonstrative pronoun. It is related to the $h\bar{a}$ which is used as an assertive particle and a demonstrative pronoun in Hallām, and elsewhere. A form such as Angāmi \bar{a} pu- $w\bar{e}$, I say, should accordingly be literally translated my saying-is.'

Another consequence of the nominal character of the Tibeto-Burman verb is that it can be used in connexion with postpositions like an ordinary noun. In this way the verbal noun is used to form various kinds of adverbial sentences. Thus, Tibetan 'agro-na, going-in, if (I) go; lang-nas, rising-from, when you have risen; ltas-pas, seeing-by, when he saw, etc.

Ordinary nouns are incapable of inflexion in time. The same is, broadly speaking, the case with nouns performing the function of a verb. It will hence be generally observed that the use of the so-called tenses is very loose. If it is required to lay especial stress on the time at which an action took place, it is necessary to add a word indicating the fact. Thus we find idioms such as 'me-by striking-finishing,' instead of 'I struck,' and so forth. Such additions have, it is true, often lost their full root-meaning, and are now exclusively used as suffixes; but in all cases in which we can trace the history of such tense-suffixes, they have a definite meaning of their own.

The various tense-bases of Tibetan are of a different nature. Modern investigations seem to show that they have nothing to do with time, but are simply parallel forms, of which the sphere has sometimes been restricted to one special time.

The negative verb appears to have been originally formed by prefixing a negative particle to the verbal noun. If a verb substantive or an auxiliary was added, the negative particle was often prefixed to it. This is probably the reason for so many dialects using a negative suffix. It must be derived from a verb substantive with a negative prefix. Thus the Old Kuki suffix mak, not, contains a verb substantive uk and a negative prefix ma. Uk is probably identical with Tibetan 'adug, is, Baltī uk.

It has been already remarked that the usual order of words in Tibeto-Burman languages is subject, object, verb. There is, however, considerable inconsistency, and comparison with Chinese and Siamese shows that a fixed order of words must be a comparatively modern departure.

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At all events, it cannot have sprung into existence before the old Tibeto-Burman parent language had branched off from the common stock from which the modern Tibeto-Burman and Chinese-Siamese families have both developed.

It has been pointed out that the old intransitive bases of Tibeto-Burman classification of Tibeto-Burman as well as those of Chinese-Siamese could not begin with hard consonants. On the whole, 'it is doubtful whether the common parent tongue possessed hard consonants at all. The old initial consonants of intransitive bases were soft. Although several dialects of Assam and Further India in many cases have preserved them, there is a general tendency throughout the whole family to harden such sounds. The preservation of these soft initial consonants is most common in the dialects belonging to the Kachin, Bodo, and Nāgā groups, which in this respect agree with classical Tibetan and many Himalayan dialects. It is not, however, possible to base a classification only upon this state of affairs, because it would necessitate our separating the modern dialects of Tibet from classical Tibetan.

The use of tones might possibly suggest itself as another basis of classification. Central Tibetan in this respect apparently agrees with Kachin and probably also with the central Nāgā dialects. The tendency to develope a system of different tones must, however, be assigned to the common parent tongue from which Tibeto-Burman and Siamese-Chinese have been derived. It is apparently a consequence of the dropping of the old prefixes. The fact that it has not been developed in numerous Tibeto-Burman dialects is probably due to the more thoroughgoing preservation of the old prefixes, and perhaps also to the influence of the languages spoken by the old inhabitants whom the Tibeto-Burmans found in possession of the country when they first entered it.

On the whole, it is impossible to classify the Tibeto-Burman dialects satisfactorily. They must have split up into many different forms of speech at a very early period, and there are numerous crossings and intercrossings. The remarks which follow do not pretend to be more than a provisional attempt at a classification based on the facts brought to light in this Survey.

The most important Tibeto-Burman language is Tibetan. It comprises several dialects, and it is known in an old form which goes back to at least the seventh century A.D.

The old language makes an extensive use of prefixes, which had lost their character as separate syllables and had been reduced to consisting of a consonant alone. The old soft initials were well preserved.

The modern dialects have all been developed from a similar form of speech. In Central Tibet the old prefixes have been lost, and the soft initials have become aspirated and hardened. Hand in hand with these changes the characteristic Central Tibetan tone-system has been developed.

In the west, the prefixes have, to a great extent, been preserved. The same is the case with the soft initials. There are, on the other hand, no tones.

The eastern dialects agree with the western ones in the particulars just mentioned. Some Tibetan dialects are spoken in the Chinese province of Ssechuan. They are characterized by the use of prefixes which are still full syllables. In this respect they connect Tibetan with the dialects of the Kachin, Nāgā, and Bodo groups.

The Kachin dialects agree with classical Tibetan in many respects. The diasoft initials have, on the whole, been preserved. There is, however, a strong tendency to aspirate them. The old prefixes are still pronounced in many words. Causals are commonly formed by means of prefixes. Kachin possesses a system of tones similar to that of Central Tibetan.

In the south Kachin is spoken in the neighbourhood of Burmese, and philologically it can be considered as a link between Tibetan and Burmese. It agrees with the latter form of speech in many important details, e.g., in the use of several prefixes and suffixes and in the richly developed system of verbal particles.

The neighbours of the Kachins towards the west speak dialects belonging to the Nāgā and Kuki-Chin groups, and there are many characteristic features which connect Kachin with both. Thus the extensive use of the prefix ga, ka is common to Kachin and Nāgā, and the vocabulary and many suffixes in Kuki-Chin are strikingly like those in use in Kachin.

The Nāgā group comprises a long series of dialects which mutually differ much from each other. They are, on the whole, more closely related to Tibetan than to Burmese. The old soft initials have often been hardened, but they are also often preserved. Causals are still often formed by means of prefixes, and prefixes on the whole play a considerable rôle. The dialects classed together in this Survey under the head of the Central Nāgā sub-group are apparently more closely related to Tibetan than the other Nāgā dialects. They are said to make use of an elaborate system of tones, and the negative verb is formed as in Tibetan by means of a negative prefix, while other Nāgā dialects, as also the Bodo and Kuki-Chin groups use a negative suffix.

In the south and west the Nāgā dialects are connected with the Bodo and Kuki-Chin languages by means of several intermediate dialects.

Between Nāgā and Tibetan we find several dialects which have been put together as the North Assam Group. They also, in some respects, connect Tibetan with the dialects of the so-called Bodo-group. Before proceeding to those last-mentioned forms of speech it will, however, be necessary to mention a long series of dialects spoken in the Central and Lower Himalayas, which will be classed together under the head of Himalayan languages. They comprise many dialects, which differ to some extent amongst themselves, but which as a whole can be said to form a link between Tibetan and the dialects of the Bodo and Kuki-Chin groups. Some of them, besides, show traces of a non-Tibeto-Burman element. Further details will be found in the introduction to the Himalayan languages.

The Bodo dialects agree with Tibetan in many respects. The old soft initials have, to a considerable extent, been preserved, and causal verbs are commonly formed by adding prefixes as in Tibetan. It is, however, still more common to form them by adding a suffix. In this respect the Bodo dialects agree with Nāgā, with which group it also has several other points of connexion, and also with the Kuki-Chin dialects.

With those latter forms of speech the Bodo dialects also agree in other important points, e.g., in the frequent use of the pronominal prefixes and of generic particles with numerals.

The Kuki-Chin dialects, on the other hand, form the last link in the chain connecting Tibetan with Burmese, the southernmost Tibeto-Burman language.

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Further details will be found in the introductions to the various sub-groups. The preceding remarks will have shown that the relationship between the various Tibeto-Burman dialects is somewhat complicated, and that it is impossible to bring it under one single formula. If we ignore minor details the state of affairs can, perhaps, broadly be described as follows:—

Tibetan and Burmese, the northernmost and southernmost Tibeto-Burman languages, are connected by means of two different chains of dialects. The eastern consists of the various Kachin dialects, the western has a double beginning in the north, which unites towards the south. In the first place we find the dialects of the North Assam group merging into the Nāgā, and further into the Bodo and Kuki-Chin forms of speech, and, in the second place, we can also trace a line from Tibetan, through the Himalayan languages, into Bodo and further into Kuki-Chin. Those latter dialects then gradually merge into Burmese.

The first to recognize the unity of the Tibeto-Burman languages was B. H.

Hodgson, who in 1828 began to publish a series of papers on the Tibeto-Burman dialects. Some useful remarks had already been published by Rémusat in 1820. Max Müller, in his Letter to Chevalier Bursen on the Classification of the Turanian Languages, attempted a classification of the Tibeto-Burman languages, by sub-dividing them into two groups which he called sub-Himalayan or Gangetic and Lohitic, respectively. The latter sub-division broadly comprises Burmese and the dialects of the North Assam, Nāgā, Bodo, Kachin and Kuki-Chin groups.

Remarks on Tibeto-Burman philology were further made by Logan, Forbes, Grube, and others. The whole question was finally put forward in a new light in the works of Professors Kuhn and Conrady.

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TIBETAN OR BHŌŢIĀ.

Tibetan is the language of Tibet and the adjoining districts of India. It does not properly fall within the scope of this Survey. Important dialects are, however, spoken in British India, and it will therefore be necessary to give a short account of Tibetan and its sub-dialects.¹

The language of Tibet has usually been designated Tibetan. The origin of the name Tibet is obscure, and it would be waste of time to Name of the language. enter upon the various explanations propounded by different It came to Europe through the Muhammadans of Western Asia. Tibetans themselves call their country Bod-yul and their language Bod-skad, pronounced Bhö-kä in Central Tibetan. 'A Tibetan' is Bod-pa, and this word has been changed to Bhautta, Bhōtiā, etc., by the Hindus. The name 'Bhōtiā' is now applied by them to the Tibetans living on the borders between India and Tibet, while the people of Tibet proper are called Huniyas, and the country Hundes. Several names have been proposed for the language. The one which has been universally recognized is Tibetan. In the oldest publications about the language, it interchanges with Tangutan, a name which has not been adopted by scholars in that sense. The name Bhotanta, which was used in the first Tibetan dictionary, has also been discarded as being apt to produce the impression that the dialect of Bhutan is meant. It has also been proposed to call the language Bhötiā and to distinguish the sub-dialects by adding the locality where they are spoken, viz., Bhōtiā of Tibet, or Tibetan proper; Bhōtiā of Bhutan or Drug-kā; Bhötiā of Sikkim or Dānjong-kā; Bhōtiā of Ladakh or Ladakhī, and so forth. such a terminology the fact must be urged that the Bhötiā of Tibet comprises many dialects which are mutually more different than is Danjong-ka from the Tibetan of Central Tibet. It would accordingly be impossible to speak of the Bhötia of Tibet as opposed to other dialects, and the name Tibetan would have to be discarded altogether. Moreover the inhabitants of Tibet proper are usually known to the Hindus of Upper India as Hūniyas and not as Bhötiās. I therefore prefer to employ the name Tibetan as the common designation of the language, as the one which is universally recognized as such. The fact that the language is also spoken outside Tibet cannot be urged against its being called Tibetan. Nobody hesitates to call the French language spoken in Belgium French.

Various dialects of Tibetan are spoken all over Tibet including Baltistan and Ladakh. The Zoji La pass, on the high road from Srinagar to Dras, is the ethnographic watershed between the Aryan and Tibetan population. Thence we may draw an irregular line eastwards including the northernmost districts of Lahoul, Spiti, Kunawar, Garhwal, Nepal, Sikkim and Bhutan. Tibetan is accordingly mainly a language foreign to India, where it is only

¹ I take this opportunity of acknowledging the great assistance which has been rendered me in the preparation of what fellows by the Rev. A. H. Francke. He has kindly undertaken to read through the whole section in proof, and he has favoured me with numerous valuable notes and corrections. The chapters dealing with Balti and Purik have been practically rewritten by him, the materials originally prepared for this Survey having turned out to contain several wrong forms.

spoken by immigrants in the frontier districts. Towards the east it extends into the Chinese province of Ssechuan.

Tibetan is not a uniform language over the whole territory within which it is spoken. The classical dialect of Tibetan literature represents the stage of development at which the language had arrived in the time when it was first reduced to writing. It was then a monosyllabic form of speech with a highly complicated phonetic system, abounding in compound consonants. These compounds were, at least in numerous cases, the final result of a combination of prefixes with monosyllabic bases. The prefixes must once have formed separate syllables. Their vowels were, however, very early lost, and the result was a monosyllabic word beginning with a compound consonant. Such compounds have been partly retained in the west and in the east. In the centre, on the other hand, the prefixed consonants representing the last remnant of the old prefixes have been dropped, and the old base-words have been restored, apparently without any traces of the lost prefixes. This dropping of the prefixes is however only apparent. Their existence is still traceable by means of the tone, such words being, as a rule, pronounced in the so-called high tone. A short account of the Tibetan tone-system will be given later on. In this place it will be sufficient to remark that the dropping of the old prefixes and the resulting use of tones is characteristic of all Central Tibetan dialects, which are spoken from Spiti in the west to Bhutan in the east. This group includes numerous sub-dialects which will be separately dealt with in the ensuing pages in so far as they are spoken within the territory included under the operations of this Survey. Proceeding from the west these dialects are Spiti, Nyamkat, Jad, the Garhwal dialect, Kagate, Sharpa, Danjongka, and Lhoke. The dialect spoken in Rubshu is also a form of Central Tibetan. It is probably identical with the Spiti form of the language. Our information regarding the dialects of this group spoken in Tibet is less complete. We only know the dialect of Central Tibet, i.e., the provinces of Ü and Tsang, which is a kind of lingua franca over the whole Tibetan territory. The dialect spoken in the so-called Chumbi Valley between Sikkim and Bhutan apparently agrees with the forms of speech current in those States and not with the Ü-dialect. The valley itself is called Pomo, and is divided into Upper and Lower Domo.

The western portion of Tibet, from a line drawn from Darjeeling and northwards, is called Ngari. It is divided into the three districts of Mangyul, Khorsum, and Maryul. Mangyul marches with Nepal almost to its western boundary; Khorsum extends along the frontier of Kumaon, Garhwal, and Bashahr; Maryul includes Western Tibet, especially the Kashmiri States of Baltistan and Ladakh.

The dialects of Mangyul probably agree with Sharpa and Kagate, which are spoken in Eastern Nepal. The language of Khorsum is probably closely related to Spiti, Nyamkat, Jad, the Tibetan dialect spoken in Garhwal, etc., while the dialects of Rudok to the north of Khorsum probably merge into Ladakhī and Baltī.

Those latter forms of speech belong to another group, which Jaeschke called Western Tibetan. It is spoken in Baltistan and Ladakh, and probably also in the adjoining districts of Tibet. Three closely related dialects of this group are spoken within British territory, viz., Baltī in Baltistan, Purik in the old province of Purik, and Ladakhī in Ladakh. All these dialects agree in retaining a good deal of the

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compound consonants of classical Tibetan, and in being devoid of tones. In this latter respect the Tibetan dialect spoken in Lahoul marches with Western Tibetan. On the other hand it simplifies the old compound consonants just as is the case in Central Tibetan. Final consonants are often dropped in Lahoul, as is also the case in Central Tibetan. In that case, the preceding vowel often assumes an abrupt pronunciation in Lahoul as well as in Ü and Tsang. The Lahoul dialect can therefore be described as a kind of connecting link between Western and Central Tibetan.

The dialect spoken in the province of Khams in Eastern Tibet agrees with Western Tibetan in being devoid of tones and in retaining many of the old compound consonants of classical Tibetan. Such compounds are, however, treated in a different way from that which is the case in Western Tibetan, and the Khams dialect must therefore be separated as a distinct group, which we shall call Eastern Tibetan. Connected dialects are spoken to the North and East, in Sifan and Ssechuan. Short vocabularies have been published of several of them by Hodgson, Rosthorn, and others. They do not fall within the scope of this Survey, and it will, in this place, be sufficient to mention that they form the link which connects Tibetan with the Tibeto-Burman languages of Assam and Further India.

We have no trustworthy information about the number of speakers of the various

Tibetan dialects outside British India. The population of
Tibet is estimated at about six millions. Numerous speakers

are also found in Nepal and Bhutan. According to rough local estimates prepared
during the preliminary operations of this Survey, the number of speakers of Tibetan and
its sub-dialects within the districts included was as follows:—

Tibetan	unspecified											7,968
,,	Lahoul dialect	;	•	•								1,579
**	Spiti dialect		•	•	•			•	•			3,548
,,	Nyamkat .		•			•	•		•	•	•	1,544
**	Jad .	•	•				•	•			•	106
;;	Garhwal diale	ct			•					•		4,300
"			•			•		•				900
**	Dänjongkä	•			•							20,000
77	Lboke .	•	•	•	•	•	٠	٠	•	•	•	5,079
										To	TAL	45,021

This total is considerably below the mark, and it does not include important dialects such as Baltī and Ladakhī.

At the last Census of 1901 the number of speakers of Tibetan and its dialects was returned as follows:—

· ·											To	ra L	•	235,224
Others	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	35,822
Lhoke	•	•	•	•	•		٠	•	•	4	•	*	•	40,590
Dänjongh	8	•	•	•	•		•	•	•	•	• `	•	•	8.825
Sharpa		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	t	•	•		4,407
Ladakhi	•	•	•		•	•	٠	•	•	•	•	•	•	90
Balti	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	,•	•	•			•	130,678
Tibetan	•	•	•,	•	•	•	•		•	•				14,812

Of the 40,590 speakers returned under the head of Lhoke, 31,615 were enumerated n the Punjab. It is not possible that these speak the Tibetan Lhoke dialect of Rhuten

and these figures will not therefore be added under the detailed description of that dialect.

The figures entered under the head of Ladakhī do not include the speakers of that dialect in Ladakh, where they have been returned as speaking Budhī. Their number was 29,716. They are included in the 35,822 speakers under the head of Tibetan, others.

Tibetan was already a literary language in the early part of the 7th century.

The Rev. H. Jäsckhe, in the introduction to his TibetanEnglish Dictionary, sums up the history of Tibetan

literature as follows:-

'There are two chief periods of literary activity to be noticed in studying the origin and growth of Tibetan literature and the landmarks in the history of the language. The first is the Period of Translations which, however, might also be entitled the Classical Period, for the sanctity of the religious message conferred a corresponding reputation and tradition of excellence upon the form in which it was conveyed. This period begins in the first half of the seventh century, when Thommi Sambhota, the minister of Srongtsangampo, was sent to India to learn Sanskrit. His invention of the Tibetan alphabet gave a twofold impulse; for several centuries the wisdom of India and the ingenuity of Tibet laboured in unison and with the greatest industry and enthusiasm at the work of translation. The tribute due to real genius must be awarded to these early pioneers of Tibetan grammar. They had to grapple with the infinite wealth and refinement of Sanskrit; they had to save the independence of their own tongue, while they strove to subject it to the rule of scientific principles, and it is most remarkable how they managed to produce translations at once literal and faithful to the spirit of the original. The first masters had made for their later disciples a comparatively easy road, for the style and context of the writings with which the translators had to deal present very uniform features. When once typical patterns had been furnished, it was possible for the literary manufacture to be extended by a sort of mechanical process.

A considerable time elapsed before natives of Tibet began to indulge in compositions of their own. When they did so, the subject-matter chosen by them to operate upon was either of an historical or a legendary kind. In this Second Period the language shows much resemblance to the modern tongue, approaching most closely the present idiom of Central Tibet.'

According to Sarat Chandra Das the second period begins about the year 1025 A.D. It is the age of Milaraspa and Atisa, etc. Sarat Chandra reckons a new stage from 1205 A.D.—

'When Pandit Śākya Śri of Kashmir had returned to Tibet after witnessing the plunder and destruction of the great Buddhist monasteries of Odantapuri and Vikrama Śīla in Magadha, and the conquest of Bengal and Behar by the Mahomedans under Baktyar Ghilji (sic.) in 1203 A.D. . . . Among the most noted writers of the time were Sakya Pandit Kungah Gyal-tshan, Dogon Phag-pa, the spiritual tutor of Emperor Khubli Khan, and Shongton Lotsāwa, who translated the Kāvyādarśa of Dandin and Kshemendra's Avadāna Kalpalatā in metrical Tibetan. With the opening of the 15th century Buton-Rinchen Düb introduced a new era in the literature of Tibet, and Buddhism received fresh impulse under the rule of the Phagmodu chiefs, when Tibetan scholars took largely to the study of Chinese literature under the auspices of the Ming Emperors of China. During this period, called the age of Dā-nying (old orthography), the great indigenous literature of Tibet arose. A host of learned Lotsāwas and scholars like Tsongkhapa, Buton, Gyalwa Ngapa, Lama Tārānātha, Desri Sangyo Gyatsho, Sumpa Khampo, and others flourished. This was the age of the Gelug-pa or Yellow Cap School of Buddhism, founded by Tsongkhapa with Gahdan as its head-quarters.

The third period begins with the first quarter of the 18th century, when Chinese suzerainty over Tibet was fully established and the last of the Tartar kings of the dynasty of Gushi Khan was killed by a General of the Jungar Tartars—an incident which transferred the sovereignty of Tibet to the Dalai Lama, who was till then a mere hierarch of the Gelug-pa church. It is within this period that Tibet has enjoyed unprecedented peace under the benign sway of the holy Bodhisattvas, and its language has become the *lingua franca* of Higher Asia.'

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¹ The Tibetan alphabet which was introduced in the seventh century was probably based on an older alphabet which had, in its turn, been developed after some old Indian script.

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The Tibetans are mentioned in old Chinese writings under the name of Kiang. The name of Tibet has come to us through the Muhammadans. In the form Tobbat it is used by Istakhri towards the end of the 6th century A.D. The usual form with the Muhammadans is Tibbat. Compare the quotations in H. Yule's Hobson-Johson, sub voce. Some remarks on Tibet were published by Johan de Plano Carpini (1247), by Wilhelmus de Rubrak (1253), Marco Polo (1298), and others. They do not tell us much about the country. In the 17th and 18th centuries Jesuit missionaries from Peking visited the country, and the Capuchin Friar Horazio della Penna Bella lived at Lhasa for 17 years from 1732, and also learnt the language.

The first Tibetan writings which were brought to Europe were found in South Siberia and sent to Rome and Paris by the Emperor Peter the Great in 1721. They were recognized as Tibetan by La Croze, Theophilus Siegfried Bayer, Gerhard Friedrich Müller, and others, and the French orientalists Étienne and Michel Fourmout made an attempt at translating them. La Croze also published a note on the Tibetan alphabet.

The materials sent home by the Jesuit missionaries were utilized by August Antonius Georgi in his Alphabetum Tibetanum, Rome, 1762. Some Tibetan words were made known by John Bell in his Travels from Russia to divers parts of Asia, Clasgow, 1763, and in a polyglot vocabulary compiled in St. Petersburg in the middle of the 18th century, further by Lorenzo Hervas, and others. A review of these and other works will be found in Adelung's Mithridates, quoted below. The Lord's Prayer in Tibetan was published by Cassiano Beligatti, Lorenzo Hervas, and others.

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The Tibetan alphabet is usually stated to have been adopted from India by Thon-misam-bho-ta, minister of King Shrong-b<u>ts</u>an-sgam-po, about the year 632. It is, however, possible that the art of writing was known in Tibet at an earlier period. Two distinct characters are in use, the so-called *u-chän*, written *dbu-chan*, head possessing, and the so-called *u-mcd*, written *dbu-med*, head-less. The former is always used in printing and is distinguished by the characteristic top-line of North Indian alphabets. The latter is the current hand of every day's writing and the top-line is dispensed with. In this place we are only concerned with the *u-chän* character. It consists of the following signs:—

Щ	P	피	5
ka	kha	ga	nga
જ	a చ	E	3
cha	chha	ja	nya
5	ঘ	5	ৰ
ta	tha	da	na
ম	~	¤	ठा
pa	pha	ba	ma
ર્સ	చ	Ę	
<u>ts</u> a	$\underline{ts}ha$	dza	
댐	ବ	3	٩
roa	zha	za	'a
쩌 ,	τ	ત્ય	
ya	ra	la	
4	*1	5	ष्य
sha	8a	ha	· a

It will be seen that the above table does not contain any signs for the cerebrals or for vowels other than a. Cerebrals are found in all Tibetan dialects as the result of the simplifying of certain compound consonants. Compare the remarks under the head of pronunciation below. In borrowed words the cerebrals are written by means of the inverted signs of the dentals. Thus, 7 ta; 7 ta; 7 ta; 7 ta; 7 ta.

All vowels are short if not resulting from contractions; compare the remarks under the head of pronunciation. The vowel a is inherent in every consonant, and it is not separately marked. If other vowels are to follow a consonant, they are indicated by means of separate signs at the head or the foot of the consonant, vis.:— c, i, o, and u. Thus, m ke; m ki; m ko; m ku.

Initial vowels are indicated in the same way, the signs \mathcal{R} and \mathcal{R} a being used as the bases of the vowel signs; thus, $\widetilde{\mathcal{R}}$, o; $\widetilde{\mathcal{R}}$ i. The sign \mathcal{R} denotes the opening of the previously closed throat for pronouncing a vowel with the slight explosive sound which the Arabs indicate by means of the Hamza. \mathcal{R} is the mere vowel without that opening. Thus the words (the) lily an endogen would be written $\widetilde{\mathcal{R}}$ while the word Lilian would be written $\widetilde{\mathcal{R}}$ $\widetilde{\mathcal{R}}$. This difference is only observed in Eastern Tibet. In Western Tibet both $\widetilde{\mathcal{R}}$ and $\widetilde{\mathcal{R}}$ are pronounced as a.

It has already been remarked that the vowel a is inherent in all consonants. That is not, however, the case if the consonant closes a syllable beginning with a vowel or another consonant. It is therefore necessary to mark the end of each syllable. This is done by adding a dot at the right side of the upper end of the closing letter. This dot is called \underline{taheg} . Thus $AATA^*$ lag-pa; TA^* ka-ra; TA^* kar.

Two or more consonants are often combined without any intervening vowel.

The letter y is subjoined to the letters k, kh, g, p, ph, b, and m. It is then expressed by means of the sign under the consonant. Thus m kya, m khya, m gya, m g m gya.

The sign is sometimes found at the bottom of a letter. It originally represented the subscribed Sanskrit a va. In Tibetan words it is commonly a discritical sign used in order to distinguish homonymes; thus $5 \pm 8ha$, salt; $5 \pm 8ha$, hot.

If a syllable beginning with such a compound ends with an a, the sign a is added in order to avoid the mistake of pronouncing the last component as the final consonant of the syllable. Thus, 593 dga, but 59 dag.

The numeral signs are

2	3.	3	0	٧٠	S	y	4	8	•
1	$\dot{2}$	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0

Pronunciation differs in the different dialects. In this place we shall only make some few general remarks.

The Tibetan vowels are, broadly speaking, short. In Western Tibet vowels are comparatively long when closing a syllable, but really long vowels only occur as the result of a contraction; thus, Central Tibetan $l\vec{n}$, written AN las, work. In borrowed words long vowels occur and are indicated by an Q under the consonant; thus, 5.57 $n\bar{a}ma$, called; NA $m\bar{u}la$, root.

With regard to consonants, it should be noted that the hard unaspirated mutes are pronounced without any admixture of aspiration.

The corresponding soft consonants are pronounced in different ways. When final they are usually hardened. When initial they are pronounced like the corresponding English sounds. In the East, however, they are pronounced with a strong aspiration so that they are scarcely discernible from the corresponding hard sounds. Thus, gang, which ? is pronounced ghang or even kang. This tendency is traceable from Spiti castwards. It will be seen in what follows that it goes hand in hand with the tone system. When the soft consonant is the second component of a consonantal compound, the dialects of Western and Eastern Tibet have developed in opposite directions. In the West, a prefix before a soft consonant tends to harden it. In the East, on the other hand, the soft sound is retained if it is preceded by one of the prefixes s, r, d, g, and b, while it is hardened after m and 'a.

Compound consonants are treated in different ways in the different dialects. Those which end in a subscribed y and r are often retained, especially in the West. The r which is added above other consonants is also dialectally pronounced.

Other compounds are generally simplified. Some of them are, however, still pronounced in the Khams dialect. The initial \mathcal{R} of compound consonants is often pronounced as a nasal in compound words after vowels; thus, $\mathcal{R}(\mathcal{R}, \mathcal{R}) = bka^* aggur$, is commonly pronounced Kanjur. Both the component letters of the conjunct db are dropped in most dialects; thus, dbu, pronounced u, head.

Further details regarding Tibetan pronunciation will be mentioned under the head of the various sub-dialects.

It has already been remarked that Central Tibetan possesses a system of tones which does not exist in the West and in the East. The fundamental lines of this system were already discovered by Jaeschke. He distinguished between two tones, the high and the deep one. The latter, he stated, was found in words beginning with uncompounded soft consonants in the written language, the former in words beginning with soft consonants preceded by a prefix or else beginning with hard consonants.

The Rev. Graham Sandberg went farther and distinguished three tones, the high-pitched, the medial, and the low resonant. 'The high-pitched tone,' he said, 'is rendered by an elevated treble or feminine style of voice, continuously sustained at one pitch; and the medial being scarcely lower, that must be the key in which the ordinary flow

of words ought to run, merely subduing the voice to the low resonant tone, which is guttural in character, whenever a word or words proper to that tone are introduced.

Still more details have been given by the Rev. E. Amundsen, who began his studies of Tibetan with an ear trained for the tone-system by his previous study of Chinese. He distinguishes six different tones, which number can, however, be reduced to four, as in two cases the difference depends only on the length of the tone, and not on its musical height. The Rev. A. H. Francke has shown that Mr. Amundsen's system bears a striking similarity to the system propounded by the ancient native grammarians. The six tones are described as follows:—

- Tone 1. High pitched, often nasal, and short as if butted against something;
- Tone 2. High like tone 1, but long.
- Tone 3. Medium pitch and short like tone 1.
- Tone 4. Medium pitch and long.
- Tone 5. Curved tone; deep but gradually raised to medium pitch, like saying 'two' in a surprised questioning tone.

Tone 6. Descending long tone.

With regard to the two main divisions of Tibetan tones, Professor Conrady's investigations have shown that the state of affairs must be explained as follows. Intransitive bases originally, as a rule, commenced with soft consonants. Transitive bases were then formed from them by adding prefixes. The soft consonant preceded by a prefix frequently developed into an aspirated hard consonant. The prefixes were originally independent syllables. In the course of time, however, they lost their character as such. At the same time the following base-word was pronounced in a high-pitched tone, while the old soft initials were combined with a low tone.

The hard initials must, as a rule, be considered as a secondary development from soft sounds preceded by prefixes. They are sometimes in their turn preceded by new prefixes. They do not, however, change their tone on that account, and such hard sounds preceded by prefixes are apparently a comparatively late departure in the development of the Tibetan language.

Tibetan is a comparatively well known language, and it is not necessary in this place to give a detailed account of its declension and conjugation.

Several features of Tibetan grammar will be mentioned under the head of the various sub-dialects. In this place it will be sufficient to draw attention to some general features which characterize the classical language and run through all, or most, dialects.

Nouns.—Nouns are monosyllabic base-words, with or without prefixed consonants, or else they are followed by suffixes. The most common suffixes are pa, ba, ma, po, bo, mo. Ba and bo are pronounced wa, wo respectively after vowels and after the consonants ng, r, and l. Po and mo are sometimes distinguished by po being employed as the male and mo as the female suffix; thus classical Tibetan rgyal-po, king; rgyal-mo, queen.

These suffixes give a distinct nominal character to a base. They are thus used to form verbal nouns and participles.

Pa, ba, and ma are used in a very wide way. Pa is often used like Hindostānī wālā in order to denote a person who is in some way connected with the thing denoted vol. III, PART 1.

by the base-word; thus, chhu-pa, water-man, water-carrier; rta-pa, horse-man; Dbus-pa, a man from Dbus, *i.e.*, the province of \ddot{U} . If a corresponding feminine is intended, ma is added to, or substituted for, pa; thus, Dbus-ma, a woman from \ddot{U} .

The suffix po more especially denotes the performer of an action; thus, byed-po (or byed-pa-po), a doer. Colloquially it is frequently replaced by the suffix mkhan; thus, byed-mkhan, the doer.

Other suffixes which are used as mere formatives are ka, kha, and ga. They are used after some few nouns, especially such as denote the seasons, and after some numerals and pronouns; thus, dgun-ka, winter; ston-kha, autumn, etc.

All these suffixes are dropped when the word containing them is combined with another word into a compound; thus, ston-mo, feast; but ming-ston, name-feast.

Gender.—There is no grammatical gender. The natural gender is distinguished by using different words, or by means of qualifying additions; thus, pha, father; ma, mother: bu, son; bu-mo, daughter: rgyal-po, king; rgyal-mo, queen.

Number.—Nouns do not change for number. If it is necessary to denote plurality, suffixes are added such as *rnams*, dag, <u>tsho</u>, etc. They are originally independent words denoting plurality.

Case.—Cases are formed by adding suffixes, which are the same in the singular and the plural. The case suffixes to some extent differ in the different dialects.

The suffix of the genitive in the classical dialect is kyi after words ending in d, b, and s; gyi after those ending in n, m, r, and l; gi after such as end in g and ng; and 'i after vowels. The suffixes in use in the dialects can all be derived from these forms. is apparently possible to define the original meaning of this suffix. It occurs in vulgar forms such as ha-gyi, pha-gyi, that, yonder; ma-gi, the lower one, etc. In Chinese a genitive is formed by adding the suffix chi: thus, thien ti chi shing, heaven earth of nature, the nature of heaven and earth. The same suffix also forms adjectives and rela-Originally it is a demonstrative pronoun, or a pronoun of the third tive participles. person. It is impossible not to compare with this the Tibetan genitive suffix, which in the Jad dialect is sometimes pronounced chi. The literal meaning of a phrase such as bkablon-gyi lha-lcham-sku-gzhogs, the minister's wife, is then probably 'minister-that wife.' If this explanation is correct, the genitive is originally formed by adding a pronoun. The Chinese pronoun chi is used as a pronoun of the third person in the dative and the accusative. We can accordingly compare its use as a genitive suffix with the German idiom 'dem Vater sein Haus,' to the father his house, the house of the father. Tibetan idiom differs from the German in not using any possessive pronoun corresponding to the German 'sein', his. Even the genitive suffix is often dispensed with.

The Tibetan language does not possess anything corresponding to the Aryan cases of the nominative and the accusative. The subject and the object are sufficiently indicated by their position. There is, however, a tendency to use the dative as the case of the object. The dative is in all dialects formed by adding the suffix la. La is a post-position denoting the relation of space in the widest sense. It often takes the form of a in the west.

The subject of transitive verbs is put in the case of the agent. The Tibetan verb is properly a noun, and a sentence such as 'the man strikes his son' must be expressed

by 'the-man-by son striking.' The suffix of the agent is s, or, in Jad and Nyamkat, su. In most dialects it is added to the genitive, in others directly to the base.

The dative suffix is often used also to denote the locative. There is in addition a locative suffix na, and by adding s to this suffix an ablative suffix nas is formed. This s is probably identical with the suffix of the agent.

Tibetan further possesses a case denoting motion to or into. It is usually called the terminative, and it is formed by adding ru or r to bases ending in vowels; tu after g and b, and, in certain words, after d, r, and l; su after s; du after n, r, l, and the other consonants. In some dialects this case is only used in adverbs. In ordinary use it is commonly replaced by the dative.

Numerous other relations are indicated by adding postpositions to the base or to the genitive. The latter class are properly case forms of nouns.

Adjectives.—Adjectives do not differ in form from nouns. They follow the noun they qualify or, if they precede it, are put into the genitive case. Colloquially the genitive suffix is, however, often dispensed with, just as is the case with ordinary nouns.

Comparison is effected by adding *particle of comparison to the compared noun. In classical Tibetan bas, pas, and las are used in this way. Baltī has pā and Purik basang, i.e. perhaps bas yang; Ladakhī, Jad and Spitī use sang, which is perhaps abbreviated from basang, while Kāgate has borrowed the Aryan bhanda from Nepal dialects. The particles ending in s probably contain the same suffix as is used to form the ablative. The suffix sang is probably connected. A sentence such as rta-bas khyi chhung-ba yin, the dog is smaller than the horse, therefore literally means 'horse-from dog small is.'

Numerals.—The numerals of the various sub-dialects will be found in the lists of words. Higher numbers are counted in tens as in Chinese. A smaller number before a ten, hundred, etc., denotes multiplication, while after them, it denotes addition, just as is the case in Chinese. Thus, bdun-chu, seven-ten, seventy; bchu-bdun, ten-seven, seventeen. Thampa is often added to the tens from ten to hundred; phrag to hundreds and thousands, and so forth. Thus, bchu and bchu tham-pa, ten.

Pronouns.—The common forms of the personal pronouns will be found under the head of the various dialects. In this place we shall only note that several respectful forms are in use in addition to the ordinary pronouns. Such forms are *khyed*, thou; *nyid-rang*, thou; *khong*, he, and so forth.

There are in all dialects two demonstrative pronouns corresponding to English 'this' and 'that,' respectively. In classical Tibetan they are 'adi, this; de, that. In addition to them the colloquial dialects use various more specialized pronouns such as pha-gyi, yonder: ma-gi, that down there, etc.

There are no relative pronouns. Relative participles are used instead. Thus, instead of 'the man who sees' we say 'the seeing man.' Such indefinite relative clauses as are introduced in English by words such as 'he who,' 'whoever,' 'that which,' etc., can be translated by means of an interrogative pronoun in connexion with a participle.

Verbs.—The verb is the most interesting feature of Tibetan grammar. It is virtually a noun, and, accordingly, it does not vary for person and number. There is, it is true, in some dialects a tendency to distinguish the person of the subject by using

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different suffixes, but their employment is irregular and inconsistent, and the tendency can only be described as incipient.

The verb is a kind of noun. It does not, however, govern its subject in the genitive as in the case when an ordinary noun qualifies another noun. The subject of intransitive verbs does not take any distinguishing suffix; the subject of transitive verbs, on the other hand, is put in the case of the agent.

Though the verb is a noun, it is often capable of denoting action with reference to a definite time. Many verbs have different bases in the present, in the past, in the future, and in the imperative. These different tense bases are formed, partly by adding prefixes and suffixes or by changing the initial consonant, and partly by means of a change of the vowel of the base. This fact is of interest because it shows how a monosyllabic and isolating language sometimes presents characteristic features which look strikingly like a real inflexion. Thus, the present base gtung, gives, has a past base btang, a future base gtang, and an imperative base thong. Some verbs have four, some three, some two, and some only one base. The modern colloquials usually substitute the past base for all the rest.

It is impossible to give definite rules about the use of prefixes in the various tense bases. B is the most common one. In the future it often interchanges with g and d. The only suffix used in this way is s, which is often added in the past and imperative bases; thus, lta-ba, to see; past bltas, imperative ltos. When the vowel of the base is an a, it is changed to o in the imperative, and often also to e in the present; thus, 'agegs-pa, to stop, past bkag, future dgag, imperative khog. This example also shows that the initial consonant can be hardened and accompanied by an aspiration.

The details concerning these different bases will be found in the usual dictionaries and grammars. In this place I only draw attention to their existence. It may also be noted that the tense bases were most probably originally general transitive or active bases without reference to a definite time. This conclusion seems to follow from the fact that no rule can be given for the use of definite prefixes in each tense. The same prefix may occur in any of them, and the various tense bases are occasionally used as verbal bases in all tenses. Moreover the same prefixes are commonly used to form ordinary causal and active verbs. Lastly, the common tendency of the colloquial dialects to substitute the past base for the rest cannot be considered as an instance of the decay of a more fully developed language, but is a simplification of the different parallel forms in actual use.

Such tense bases are formally nouns. Several suffixes can be added. The most common one is pa, or (after the final consonants ng, r, l, and vowels) ba. By means of this suffix a common verbal noun and participle can be formed; thus, lta-ba, to see; gtong-ba, giving; btang-ba, having given, who has given.

Another common suffix is chas in Baltī; chā in Purik; chas, ches, che, in Ladakhī; che in Lahoul; ja in Kanawar; che and ze in Kāgate; she in Sikkim and Tsang, etc. It is perhaps connected with the Chinese che, which forms verbal nouns and participles.

The usual case suffixes can be added to such nouns and also to the mere tense bases, and in this way various participles and verbal nouns are formed. Thus, ltas-pas, looking-in-the-past-by, when he looked; mthong-bar, seeing-to, in order to see; nam lange-nas, night rising-from, when the night had risen; 'agro-na, going-in, if (I) go; song-la,

going-in, having gone; nyal-ba-las, lying from, after having lain; dgos-kyis, necessary-by, because it is necessary.

Other suffixes of the same kind are mkhan, te, ching, gin, etc.

Mkhan is used to form a noun of agency and a participle; thus, dngul-btang-mkhan-gyi mi, money giving-of man, the man who gives the money.

Te is used after the consonants n, r, l, and s. After d it is replaced by de, and after g, ng, b, m, and vowels by ste. It is the usual suffix of the conjunctive participle; thus, btang-ste, having given.

Ching is used after g, d, and b. After s it takes the form shing, and in all other cases it is replaced by zhing. It is used to form a conjunctive participle which is usually introduced in smaller clauses within a large one; thus, mi dga-zhing khros-te, when, being displeased, he became angry.

Gin is used to form a present participle; thus, mthong-gin 'adug, (I) am seeing.

The tense bases mentioned above are used as finite tenses. The last verb of a sentence must, however, in most cases, take an additional mark which indicates that the action implied really takes place. If there be more than one verb in the sentence, only the last one takes this mark, the whole sentence being considered as one single unit of which the reality need not be asserted more than once. In the classical dialect this assertive particle is the vowel o, before which a final consonant is doubled. Thus the past base of lta-ba, to look, is bltas. In order to express the past tense, however, o must be added; thus, bltas-so, saw. In a similar way am is added, with the same doubling of the final consonant, in interrogative sentences if there is no interrogative pronoun or adverb; thus, mthong-ngam, do you see?

In the colloquial language this o is commonly dropped. The same is also the case in the classical dialect when the principal verb is the verb substantive. It is therefore probable that o is a form of the copula. The Western dialects have og instead of o.

The interrogative particle am is usually pronounced a. It is dropped in the latter member of a double question; thus, mthong-ngam mi mthong, do you see or not?

The tense bases with the addition of the particle o are often used in order to denote the various tenses. There are, however, numerous periphrastic forms. Thus a present is formed by adding the verb substantive to the base with or without the suffix pa, ba, to the conjunctive participle, and to other participles.

A past is formed by adding suffixes such as song, went; byung, became; zin, tehar, finished, etc., to the base, or by adding the verb substantive to the base with the suffix pa or to the conjunctive participle.

A future is formed by adding 'ong or yong, comes, to the base; or by adding rgyu-yin, matter-is, to the base; or by adding 'agyur-ba, to become, to the terminative of the verbal noun ending in pa, and so forth.

Further details about such forms will be found under the head of the various dialects.

Causals.—It has already been remarked that intransitive bases as a rule begin with a soft consonant, if the initial sound is not a vowel. There are, it is true, several intransitives which begin with a hard or hard aspirated consonant. It seems, however, probable that such bases have originally had a transitive, or at least an active intransitive meaning. Compare English phrases such as 'he does go.' The hard consonants can, on the whole, be considered as a later development from soft ones.

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The regular method of forming transitives and causals is to prefix s, g, d, or b to such bases. Instead of s we also find z and r. Thus, gab-pa, to hide, to conceal one's self; sgab-pa, to cover: gad-mo, laughter; rgod-pa, to laugh: degs-pa, to fear; gdeng-ba, to threaten: gug-pa, bent; dgu-ba, to bend: du-ba, smoke; bdug-pa, to fumigate.

These prefixed consonants were originally separate syllables, and they still occur as such in connected forms of speech. Compare Singpho $s\bar{\imath}$ - $l\bar{u}m$, to make warm, from $l\bar{u}m$, warm; Lushei ti-thi, to kill, from thi, to die, etc. The following base was pronounced with a strong stress, and in the course of time the prefixes lost their character of separate syllables and were reduced to prefixed consonants, which have, in their turn, been dropped in many Tibetan dialects. At the same time, these last-mentioned dialects have usually introduced a higher tone in such words, so that the existence of these prefixes can still be ascertained by means of the tone.

Other causal verbs are formed by hardening the initial consonant of the intransitive base, with or without an aspiration. Thus, dul-ba, tame; thul-ba, to tame; gab-pa, to hide; (b-)kab, covered. Such causal verbs are pronounced with the high tone, and there can be no doubt that they have originally developed from those formed by means of prefixes.

In this connexion it may be noted that the transitive prefixes were probably once separate words which could be used as suffixes as well. Compare dro-s-pa, heated; skye-d-pa, to generate, from skye-ba, to be born, etc.

Negative verb.—The negative verb is formed by prefixing mi in the present and future, and ma in the past and in the imperative. The negatives are often prefixed to auxiliaries and not to the principal verb.

Order of words.—The order of words is subject, object, verb.

Honorific language.—The preceding remarks draw attention to some of the principal grammatical features of Tibetan. There remains one difficulty, which is considerable to all who endeavour to learn the language. To quote Mr. Walsh, 'there are in Tibetan what are practically two distinct languages running side by side, and each in current and regular use. The Common, in which one addresses an inferior, and which the lower classes speak amongst themselves, and the Honorific, zhe-sa (rje-sa), in which any one addresses a superior, and in which the educated classes politely address one another. It is necessary to know both these, as in speaking of himself the speaker always uses the common form. It is not that the same word is employed but has a different respectful form, such as occurs, for example, in the case of verbs in Urdū. In Tibetan an entirely different word is used, and this equally as regards nouns, verbs, and adjectives. Thus, if I say to an inferior, "you have a fine horse," I would say khyod-kyi rta yag-po (red), but to a superior or politely addressing an equal nyid-rang-gi chhibs-pa bzang-po (red), from which it will be seen that there is not a single word the same in the two sentences.

I give below one or two common words to show how complete the difference is:

	Common.	Honorific.
eye	$m{mig}$	spyan
nose	sna	shangs
mouth	kha	zhal
ear	rna or rna-chhog	snyan

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Similarly-

, to see	$mthong ext{-}ba$	gzigs-րa
to smell	snom- pa	shangs-snor
to eat	za-ba	bzhes-pa
to hear	go-ba or thos-pa	gsan-pa

From the examples given above it will be seen that, in respec the Common and Honorific are practically two languages.'

We shall now turn to the various Tibetan dialects, beginning wone, that spoken in Baltistan.

BALTĪ OR BHOŢIĀ OF BALTISTAN.

The province of Baltistan now forms part of the Kashmir State. It is included in the Ladakh Wazarat of the frontier districts. In old times it was an independent State. In 1841 it was conquered by Gulāb Singh, ruler of Jammu. About the same time the province of Purik was transferred from Ladakh to Baltistan.

Baltistan was already known to the Kashmir chronicler Śrīvara under the name of Little Tibet, and that denomination has continued to be used down to the present day. It is the Lokh Butun of the modern Kāśmīrīs. It is identical with the Little Poliu of the Chinese Annals.

The inhabitants of Baltistan are Tibetans with a strong admixture of Dard blood. They have embraced Muhammadanism. The Kashmir chroniclers call them Bhauttas. Compare Tibetan bod-pa, a Tibetan. Their language is closely related to the Tibetan of Tibet proper. In some respects, however, it represents a more ancient stage of phonetic development. On the other hand, it is almost devoid of tones, and in this respect it agrees with the Tibeto-Burman languages of Assam and Burma as against the dialects of Central Tibet.

In such and in many other characteristics Baltī agrees with the dialect spoken in Ladakh. The Tibetan dialect of the province of Purik forms a link between Baltī and Ladakhī. It will be dealt with immediately after Baltī.

In the report of the last Census of Kashmir the term Baltī apparently includes the languages spoken in Baltistan and Purik. In this Survey, however, it will be used to denote the dialect spoken in Baltistan proper, excluding the province of Purik to the west of the Suru River.

Baltī is the prevailing language all over Baltistan. No local estimates of the number of speakers have been forwarded for the purposes of this Survey. At the last Census of 1901 Baltī was returned from the following districts:—

											To	TAL		130,678
Gilgit	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	٠	•		•	9,187
Ladakh W	azarat	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		121,302
Srinagar	• ,	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		•		181
Jammu	•	•	•	•	•	•		•	•			•		8

This total, however, also comprises the speakers of Purik in the Kashmir State. The total population of Baltistan was 134,872.

AUTHORITY—

Austen, H. H. Godwin,—A Vocabulary of English, Balti and Kashmiri. Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. xxxv, Part i, 1866, pp. 233 and ff.

Baltī has till now only been known through Mr. Godwin Austen's vocabulary. We do not know anything about the existence of local variations in the dialect. It is, however, probable that Baltī gradually merges into Purik and Ladakhī. The Gospels of St. Mathew and St. John, and also a treatise on the significance of the sacrifice, have been translated into the dialect by Mr. Gustafson, and printed in the Persian character at Lahore. Some old historical books in the Baltī dialect are still in the possession of the present Rājas. They are written in a peculiar character, which was perhaps invented at the time of the conversion of the Baltīs to Muhammadanism about 1400 A.D. The

orthography of the Persian alphabet used by Mr. Gustafson in his translations is based on this old character. He has been good enough to send me a specimen in the old character, which it will be of interest to reproduce in this place.

ने में में हैं से प्रमान में में में में زیر نع خرا س کو ری بوه کی کھ چھیس त मं अमा ५ द में मिस हं म अ हं बर بیہ کمن کن می شی دو پڑے کھونگ ر 身性是果产3种具体空牙982 وُو كَيْنَ خُسونَ لَوُهُ 3 E कि कि मि कि विश्व मि कि زبرے کوری بو چک اوم देस एहें र ॐ में में भ हें से स یو د راس ۲ ومیڑے کوسی رمٹول

TRANSLITERATION AND TRANSLATION.

khudā-si bui-kha chhes-luh bva-khan Chā zernah. khuri kun $\mathbf{m}\mathbf{i}$ shi. Chā chhes-lukh b^eya-khan zerna, khudă-si khurri bui-kha kun mi shi, What faith-sort making . allsay-if, God-by hisson-on not die, khson-luk do-patse khong-lah hrtane duk-pi thop-tuk, zere, do-patse(-batseg) khson-lukh khong-la rtanne duk-pi thop-duk, zorre. that-from him-te faithful being-ones-of livin, short receive. saying, khuri chik-bu mins: ditse khosi mi-vul-po-lah rgas. khurri chik-bu khosi mi-yul-po-la Ъu mins; ditse rgās. his men-land-to only-one thus him-by liked.80n gave;

In the above the first line gives the literal transliteration, the second one the actual pronunciation, and the third the translation. The specimen, it will be seen, corresponds to the Gospel of St. John, iii, 16.

I am indebted to Mr. R. T. Clarke, I.C.S., for a version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son and a list of Standard Words and Phrases in Balti. They have been revised by the Rev. A. H. Francke, and the notes on the dialect which follow are based on them.

Pronunciation.—The vowels of open syllables are mostly long, and those of closed syllables short; thus, $m\bar{\imath}$, man; min, is not. The final a of the article and of case suffixes is, however, short.

The Tibetan \mathfrak{P} 'a has always been dropped or else replaced by \mathfrak{P} . Both have been transliterated a. In such connexions as minduk, classical mi 'adug, the 'a is pronounced and transliterated as n.

The consonants are, broadly speaking, the same as in classical Tibetan. Soft consonants at the end of a syllable are always hardened; thus, chik, classical gchig, one; rgyap-la, behind. The Tibetan g often also becomes kh, i.e., the ch in German 'ach' or in Scotch 'lach.' This is especially the case when g is a prefix or is followed by another consonant. Thus, khser, classical gser, gold; ltokhs, classical ltogs-pa, hunger; ltālukh, classical lta-lugs, service; khlang, classical glang, bull, etc. The same sound also occurs in the borrowed word Khudā, God.

A corresponding soft guttural aspirant gh occurs in words such as $gh\bar{a}$, classical lnga, five; thagh-ring, classical thag-ring, far.

The consonant r when prefixed to another consonant often becomes sh or s; thus, sta or rsta, classical rta, horse.

Compound consonants, initial as well as final, which are so marked a characteristic of classical Tibetan, are also frequent in Baltī. This latter dialect can even boast of some additional final compounds.

Suffixes.—In addition to the suffixes used in the declension and conjugation we may note chan, khan, and chas. Chan is used as in classical Tibetan to form possessive compounds; thus, nyes-pā-chan, sin having, a sinner; an-chan, power having, mighty. Khan and chas seem to be used in order to form participles and verbal nouns; thus, rgā-khan-kun, friends; nyam-pō-yot-khan chi, a servant; stor-khan-pō, lost; yot-chas-kun, goods; gon-chas-kun, robes. Compare the Ladakhī suffixes khan and ches.

Tones.—Balti does not appear to possess a marked system of tones. In this respect it agrees with Purik and Ladakhi.

Articles.—There is no definite article. The numeral chik, one, is often used as an indefinite article. It is then frequently shortened to $ch\bar{\imath}$ or chi. Thus, $m\bar{\imath}$ chik, a man; yul $ch\bar{\imath}$ -la, to a country.

Nouns.—Gender is only distinguished in the case of animate beings. It is denoted by using different words or by adding suffixes. Thus, $m\bar{\imath}$, man; $b\bar{u}$ -string, woman: $\underline{kh}lang$, bull; $b\bar{a}$, cow: $khy\bar{\imath}$, dog; $khy\bar{\imath}$ - $m\bar{o}$, bitch: ra-skyes, he-goat; $r\bar{a}$, goat, female goat.

Number.—There are two numbers, the singular and the plural. The plural is not marked when it appears from the context; thus, khō-la hlam skon, him-on shoes put; ngī atā-la nyampō-duk-khan mot-pō yot, my father-to servant many are.

The usual plural suffix is kun or gun, all, which is often abbreviated to ngun, un. Thus, $b\bar{u}$ -string-kun, women; \underline{kh} lang-gun, bulls; gon-chas-kun, robes; $at\bar{a}$ -un, fathers; $m\bar{\imath}$ -un, men; $khy\bar{\imath}$ -un, dogs.

Another plural suffix is chōk; thus, yot-chas-kun-chōk, goods, all goods.

Case.—The nominative and the accusative are not distinguished by means of suffixes. The nominative is used as the subject of intransitive verbs. The subject of transitive verbs, on the other hand, is put in the case of the agent. The suffix of that case is s; thus, $att\bar{a}$ -s, by the father.

The suffix of the dative is la; thus, $at\bar{a}$ -la, to a father; $at\bar{a}$ -un-la, to fathers. Instead of la we find a in shiti-a, direction-to, to. The suffix la is used in the same wide sense as in classical Tibetan; thus, brok-la, on the mountain pasture; lam-thagh-ring yul $ch\bar{i}$ -la, to a distant country. The dative is sometimes also used as an accusative; thus, ngas $kh\bar{o}i$ $phr\bar{u}$ -la. . . t-angs, I have beaten his son.

The suffix la is, moreover, sometimes also used to denote the agent; thus, $att\bar{a}-la$ $khur\bar{\imath}\ phr\bar{u}\ thong$, the father saw his son.

The suffix of the ablative is $n\bar{a}$, corresponding to classical Tibetan nas. It is commonly used to form adverbs. Thus, $tha\underline{gh}\text{-}ring\text{-}n\bar{a}$, from a distance; $de\text{-}kh\bar{a}\text{-}n\bar{a}$, thereafter. A common postposition of the ablative in the case of rational beings is $shiti\text{-}a\text{-}n\bar{a}$, from the direction of. It is usually combined with the genitive. Thus, $at\bar{a}$ chig- $g\bar{s}$ $shiti\text{-}a\text{-}n\bar{a}$, from a father.

The genitive is formed by adding the suffix $\bar{\imath}$, which supersedes a final \bar{a} . Thus, $yul-\bar{\imath}$, of a country; $att-\bar{\imath}$, of a father $(att\bar{a})$. Note forms such as $chig-g\bar{\imath}$, of one, from chik, one, where the final g has not been changed to k.

There are some few traces left of the old terminative; thus, ok-tu, under; thur-u, down; dun-u, dun-uk, before; ya-r, up.

The vocative is indicated by prefixing the interjection le; thus, le atta, O father.

Adjectives.—Adjectives do not differ from nouns in form. They usually precede, but sometimes also follow, the noun they qualify; thus, mot- $p\bar{o}$ $namz\bar{e}$, much time; $nyamp\bar{o}$ -duk-khan mot- $p\bar{o}$, many servants. The particle of comparison is $ba\underline{tsek}$; thus, $kh\bar{o}i$ $ph\bar{o}n\bar{o}$ khur-ri string- $m\bar{o}$ $ba\underline{tsek}$ $rg\bar{o}bong$ $thonm\bar{o}$ -yot, his brother his sister-than more tall-is, his brother is taller than his sister. Adjectives are often qualified by adverbs such as $m\bar{a}$, very; mang- $m\bar{o}$, very much, and so forth.

Numerals.—The first numerals are given in the list of words. They follow the word they qualify, and postpositions are accordingly added to them and not to the qualified noun; thus, $m\bar{\imath}$ chik-la, man one-to.

Generic suffixes are used in two instances. Thus, sorup chik-sā, ring one-piece, a ring; ra-bak-chi chik-sā, goat-young-one one-piece, a kid.

'A half' is phet; thus, dabal nyis nang phet, two rupees and a half.

Pronouns.—The personal pronouns which occur in the texts are as follows:—

	I.	We.	Thou.	You.	He, she, it.	They.	
Nom.	ngā, ngā-ang .	ngayā, ngan-tang	khiang, respect- ful yang.	khyetang; khyen- tang, respectful yetang.	khδ	khong, khōtang.	
Gra	ngī, ngarri .	ngai	khyer-ri, yar-ri.	khyen-ti	khō-i, khur-ri, yer-ri.	khong-ngi.	

Ngayā, we, excludes, and ngan-tang includes the person addressed. Yang is used as an honorific form and perhaps also as a plural. It apparently corresponds to classical Tibetan nyid-rang, while khiang corresponds to khyed-rang, thyself, and so forth.

Other forms are regular; thus, $ng\bar{a}$ -ang-la and $ng\bar{a}$ -la, to me; $kh\bar{o}$, him; $kh\bar{o}e$ -n \bar{a} , him from, and so forth.

Demonstrative pronouns are di, $di\bar{u}$, $d\bar{o}$, this; $d\bar{o}$ - $n\bar{a}$, from this; $d\bar{e}$, that; $d\bar{e}$ -vi, $d\bar{e}$ -bi, of that; $d\bar{e}$ - $b^{c}ang$ - $n\bar{a}$, from them. An isolated form is $y\bar{a}$, this, that. Compare Ladakhī \bar{a} , that.

Interrogative pronouns are $s\bar{u}$, who? $ch\bar{\imath}$, what? \underline{tsam} , \underline{tsam} - $\underline{ts}\bar{e}$, how much? how many?

Indefinite pronouns are suse, anyone, lit. whosoever; chang, anything.

There are no relative pronouns. Relative participles are used instead. They precede the qualified noun in the genitive; thus, $ng\bar{a}$ -ang-la ong-ma-yot- $p\bar{i}$ $p\bar{o}$, me-to coming-of share, the share that falleth to me; $ng\bar{a}$ -la yot- $p\bar{i}$ yot-chas-kun, me-to being-of goods, the goods that are mine.

Verbs.—The conjugation of verbs is, broadly speaking, effected in the same way as in classical Tibetan. The materials available are not sufficient to allow us to judge about the use of the various bases of verbs. It is probable that the past base is commonly used in all tenses, just as is the case in Ladakhī. The imperative is, however, often formed from a separate base.

There is apparently an incipient tendency to distinguish the person of the subject by means of suffixes added to the verb.

The verb substantive is formed from the bases in, yot, and duk. It is freely used in the formation of the finite tenses of other verbs.

Present.—The base of the present tense is identical with the root of the verb. The mere present base does not, however, occur in the materials available in other verbs than the verb substantive yot, am, art, etc. The usual present tense of finite verbs is a compound form. It is effected by adding suffixes to the present base. The common suffixes are nuk, et, and at, all various forms of the copula. Thus, t'ang-nuk, I, or we, strike; shit, i.e., shi-et, I die; zer-et, he says; ong-at, he comes.

A present definite is formed by adding yot to the participle ending in in; thus, $\underline{ts}h\bar{o}$ in-yot, he is grazing.

Past time.—The usual base of the past tense is formed by adding s to the present base. Thus, zer-s, said; ong-s, came; t-ang-s, struck. By adding the copula et or at to the past base a compound past is effected, which usually has the meaning of a perfect. Thus, song-s-et, went; $ngas\ b$ -ya-s-et, I have done; thobs-et, is found; kh-sons-et, has become alive. A kind of perfect is also effected by adding yot to the conjunctive participle ending in $s\bar{e}$; thus, duk- $s\bar{e}$ yot, having sat down is, has sat down, is sitting.

The participle ending in pa, ba, is commonly used as a past tense of auxiliary verbs. Thus, yot-pa, was; in-pa, was; met-pa, was not.

The suffix pa is also added to the form ending in set or to the present; thus, $t^cang-s-et-pa$, was striking; song-s-et-pa, have walked; skang-at-pa, filled, was filling.

A past tense can also be formed by adding song or songs, went, to the infinitive. Thus, bakhston-b'ya-song, is married, lit. marriage to make went.

Future.—The termination of the future tense is uk. Thus, $t^eang-uk$, I shall strike; gik, I shall go; zer-uk, I shall say.

Imperative.—Some verbs have a separate imperative base formed by changing the vowel a of the present base to o; thus, t^cong , strike, $t^cang-m\bar{o}$, to strike; $z\bar{o}$, eat, base $z\bar{a}$.

In other verbs the present base, with or without the addition shik, is used as an imperative. Thus, skon, put on; len, take; za-shik, eat; b'yas-shik, make. Shik literally means 'once,' one time.' Compare the German idiom 'sieh mal.'

Verbal nouns.—The usual suffixes of verbal nouns are $p\bar{o}$, $b\bar{o}$, $m\bar{o}$, pa, ba, and la; thus, $yot\text{-}p\bar{o}$, to be; $zer\text{-}b\bar{o}$, to say; $t^eang\text{-}m\bar{o}$, to strike; $\underline{ts}h\bar{o}\text{-}la$, to feed. The suffix chas in gon-chas, cloth, has already been mentioned. Compare classical gon-pa.

Participles.—The suffixes pa and ma form relative and adverbial participles; thus, $sh\bar{\imath}-s-pa$, dead; ong-ma-yot-pa, coming-being, which will come. Compare the instances quoted under the head of relative pronouns. The suffixes chas and khan have already been mentioned above.

Conjunctive participles are formed by adding the suffix \bar{e} to the present or past base. Thus, $zer-r\bar{e}$, saying; $khur-r\bar{e}$, taking; $ong-s-\bar{e}$, having come; $khyong-s-\bar{e}$, having brought; $b^eya-s-\bar{e}$, doing.

Other participles and verbal nouns are formed by adding the ordinary case suffixes.

The ablative suffix $n\bar{a}$ is added to the conjunctive participle ending in $s\bar{e}$ and to the participle ending in $m\bar{a}$. Thus, $song-s-\bar{e}-n\bar{a}$, having gone.

The locative suffix in is added to the present base; thus, <u>ts</u>hō-in, grazing; ltokhs-in, hungry.

The dative suffix la is used to form an infinitive of purpose; thus, $b^{\epsilon}y\bar{a}-la$, in order to make.

Passive voice.—There is no passive voice. Passivity is sufficiently indicated by the absence of the case of the agent in the subject. Thus, thop-pa song-s-et, to be found went, he is found; ngā-ang tang-ma song-s-et, me striking went, I am struck; ngā-ang tang-ma gik, me striking will-go, I shall be struck.

Causative.—There is one single instance of the classical causative formed by pre-fixing an s, viz., s-kon, make him put on, dress. Compare gon-chas, robe.

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Negative verb.—The negative particle is a prefixed $m\bar{a}$; thus, $m\bar{a}$ -rgal-ba, did not pass; met, no; men, am not. The form met is usually added to the participle in pa or ma in order to form a compound negative. Thus, min-pa-met, min-ma met-pa, did not give. There are no instances in the texts of a negative imperative.

Interrogative particle.—The formation of interrogative sentences is the same as in the Ladakhī dialect.

Order of words.—The usual order of words is subject, object, verb. The object may precede the subject when it is followed by the suffix la. The genitive precedes the governing word. Adjectives and pronouns usually precede the noun they qualify, while numerals follow it. Adverbs are put immediately before the verb, or at the beginning of the sentence.

[No. I.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

TIBETAN.

BALTĪ DIALECT.

(BALTISTAN.)

(R. T. Clarke, Esq., I.C.S., and Rev. A. H. Francke.)

Μī chik-la phrū nyīs yot-pa. Dē-beáng-nā tsun-tsē-vō-s zers. children two Man one-to were. Them-from younger-by father-to said, ٩lē atā, ngā-ang-la ong-ma-yot-pi min.' рō Atā-s khur-ri 60 father. me-even-to coming-being-of share give.' Father-by hisyot-chas-kun khong-la Mot-pō namze-ik mā-rgalba, <u>ts</u>un-<u>ts</u>ē rgos. phrū-vō-s them-to divided. possessions Much time-a not-passed, littlechild-by khur-ri yot-chas-kun khur-rē, lamthagh-ring yul chi-la bēs hispossessions carrying, way far country one-to journey beyas. yot-chas-kun chōk tshan-nu-na zhargading Yang khur-ri yot-pī zadpa And made. hisbeing-of possessions all night-in enjoying end bevas. Khur-ri yot-chas-kun chhams-pī zhuk-la, vā anchan zanushkan chi made. possessions finishing-of there mighty after, famine one Khō song. shagargō Khô song-s. yà yul-li phyuk-pō shiti-a He went. needy became. Hethatcountry-of rich-man. before nyampo-yot-khan-la duk-s, Dē phyuk-pō-s khō khur-ri phak-kun tshō-a servant-like lived. That rich-man-by him hisswinefeed-to tshas-si-khā yakh-s. Dē-khā-nā that-kyi-khā khoskhating-ngi-khā sō-sē. ltō-a field-of-on sent. There-after gladly husks-of-on living, bellu beva-sē, skang-at-pa, phag-na tshoghs yang sū-si khō-la chang swine-with filled. likedone-having, and any-one-by him-to anything min-ma-met-pa. Dē-khā-nā khō-la shang ong-sē. zer-s. 'ngī atā-la giving-not-was. There-after him-to come-having, sense said, 'my father-to nyampō-duk-khan mot-po khong-is vot: zō-sē drang-sē servants many them-by are: eaten-having filled-being lus-et. Ngā-ang ltoghs-in shīit. Ngā-ang shiti-a atī song-sē. is-spared. I-even hungering dieI-even father-of before gone-having, zer-uk. "lē atā. yar-ri phyoks nang ldan-chuk-khan-ni shiti-a ngā-ang "O father, say-shall. thydirection and Creator-of before I-even nyes-pa-chan song-s-et. Yar-ri phrug-gi phro-la yak-pō ngā-ang byurmō. sinner became (went). Thy children-of company-to place-to I-even worthy

Ngā-ang yar-ri nyampō-yot-khan-kun-nang drē-sē yok.", yot-khan chi men. one not-am. Me-even thy servants-all-with mixed-having place." beina atī shiti-a zhuk-tu khur-ri ongs. Thagh-ring-na Dē-i father-of his before came. Distance-from after This-of gyot-lukh khur-ri phrū thong, atā-la ongs; bgyug-gin atā-la child saw. father-to compassion came; his running . father-to song-se-nā. phrū brang-barla sdam-s: yang bā b'vas. Phrū-si breast-between child collected; andkiss made. Child-by gone-having, ʻlē atā, ngā-ang shiti atā-la zer-s. yar-ri nang ldan-chuk-khan-ni **I**-even . 0 father, Creator-of father-to said. the-of before and b°yas-et; yar-ri ngā-ang phrū zer-bō, shiti-a nyes-pa in byurmō men.' did; thy child 1-even before sinamto-say, worthy not-am. .Dē-khā-nā atā-s nyampō-yot-khan-kun-la ' mā zer-s. l'aghs-mö That-after father-by servant-all-to said. 'very good gonchas-shik khyong-se-na, khō-la skon: yang chik-sä sor-up khōi robe-one brought-having, him-to put; and ring one-piece his hlam khō-la skon.' phranzuk-la bor: Yang atā-s 'zā-shik. zers, place; 8hoe him-to put. finger-on And father-by said, 'eat, that-khā b'yas-shik; thung-shik. ngî shīs-pi bū khson-s-et: stor-khan-pö drink, make; merry my dead 80n alive-became: the-lost-one thop-s-et.' Khong that-khā b'yā yakh-s. found-is.' They merry to-make began.

Khō-i tshar-mō phō-nō taps-si-khā Khō yot-pa. ong-së, nang-a Hiselder field-of-on brother was. He come-having, house-to shiti-a thon-ma-nā. rtshes nang harib-bi skat khō-lā kö. before reaching-after, dance and clarinet-of 8ound him-to understood. Shiti-a duk-khan-kun-ni-nā chik-la, 'ong,' zer-rē khyong-sē. 'dīu tris, **Before** being-all-of-from one-to, 'come,' 8ayina brought-having, asked, 'this chi rgā-mō in? Shiti-a-duk-khan-bö-s khō-la ' yar-ri zers. what joy is?' Before-being-by him-to said. 'vour phō-nō lokh-sē thon-pi gron boyas, atā-s chī brother returned-having arriving-of feast made,father-by what zer-ba-na. khō lokh-së rdong-ngō-na thon-pī phari.' Khō-la saying-if, he returned-having safety-in arriving-of for. Him-to phuk-sē-nā. nang-ljongs mā zhuk-s. Dī-u phari khōi atā phirol anger-having-come-after, insidenot entered This.for his father outside byung-sē. khō-la jū-phul beyas. Khō-si tam-lan atā-la lzokh-s, 'ngā-ang appeared-having, him-to entreaty made. Him-by answer father-to returned, 'I-even dī-<u>ts</u>hē mot-pō yang-la lta-lukh beyas. lŏe Ngā-ang nam-sang yar-ri hukum many years you-to service these made. I-even never order your April 1980

chaks-pa-met; nga-ri rgā-khan-kun-nang drē-sē, rgā-mō byā-la, ngā-ang-la joy making-for, broken-not-have: friends-with mixing, me-even-to my rabak chik-sā Dō-in-na-sē khyer-ri chi min-pa-met. dō-sē bū-la kidgavest-not. one one-piece Butnow your son-to rtsē-khan-kun-nyampō beya-s-et; dē bū-si yot-pi yot-chas-kun gron dancers-with madest; thatson-by being-of feast property-all chham-chuks.' Atā-s bŭ-la 'lē yot-chas-kun zers, bū, ngā-la yot-pi said, finish-caused.' Father-by son-to · 0 me-to being-of property-all son, khyer-ri in, rgā-mō byā-yot-pō byur-mō in-pa; chā-zerba-na, khyer-ri shīs-pī thine is.joy to-be-made proper is; what-say-if, thy dead stor-khan-pō, thop-pa song-s-et.' phō-nō khson-s-et: yang brother alive-became; the-lost-one, found became.' again

PURIK.

The province of Purik formerly belonged to Ladakh, but was transferred to Baltistan after the Dogra war, 1834-42. According to the conceptions of the Ladakhis it extends from the Zoji pass to Bod-Khorba. The dialect called Purik is spoken from Mulbe to Dras.

It has not been described by any authority, and no estimates of the number of speakers are available. At the last Census of 1901, Purik was included under the head of Balti.

Purik is closely connected with Baltī and Ladakhī, and it can best be described as the connecting link between the two.

Pronunciation.—Final a is long if it occurs in the base of a word, and short if it occurs in a termination; thus, $m\bar{a}$, mother; la, to. The ablative termination $n\bar{a}$ seems to have a long \bar{a} . This \bar{a} has been derived from an old as.

 ${\it R}$ as a prefix is pronounced as in Ladakhi, with a guttural sound. Also the other r corresponds to Ladakhi r.

Final gs and ks are liable to be pronounced gh or kh, respectively. A similar sound can be observed in Ladakhi. Thus the word Ladvags is often pronounced Ladakh, and this pronunciation gave rise to the spelling Ladakh. Tones do not play any rôle in the dialect, though they are probably used to a certain degree.

Prefixes and Suffixes.—Prefixes are mainly pronounced in the same way as in Baltī and Ladakhī. R, l, and s prefixes are distinctly pronounced; g, b, and d prefixes are often pronounced as r or s; thus, rgyab, behind; ltova, belly; skad, language; rchespa, classical gches-pa, dear.

The prefix a is used in nouns of relationship as in Baltī and Ladakhī. Thus, a- $t\bar{a}$, father; a- $m\bar{a}$, mother; a- $ch\bar{e}$, elder sister; a- $n\bar{e}$, wife.

The suffix khan is used as in Baltī and Ladakhī. Thus, Itsang-khan, beggar; yong-khan, coming, etc.

Article.—There is no real definite article. The suffix $p\bar{o}$ or pa is used as a kind of article, as is also the case in Baltī and Ladakhī; thus, $nor-p\bar{o}$, property, substance; $phyug-p\bar{o}$, rich man; $serdup-p\bar{o}$, ring. In all these cases the $p\bar{o}$ corresponds to the emphatic article of Ladakhī. Compare the remarks under the head of verbal noun, below.

The numeral chik, one, is used as an indefinite article. Thus, mī chik-la, to a man; yul chig-a, to a country. It occasionally takes the form chī. Thus, ngari yong-khan-chī, my coming, my share.

Nouns.—There is no grammatical gender. The natural gender is distinguished by using separate words or by adding suffixes such as $ph\bar{o}$ and $p\bar{o}$, male; $m\bar{o}$, female. Thus, $khy\bar{\imath}$, dog; $khy\bar{\imath}$ - $m\bar{o}$, bitch: $b'y\bar{a}$ - $ph\bar{o}$, cock; $b'y\bar{a}$ - $m\bar{o}$, hen.

Number.—The usual plural suffix is gun as in Baltī and Ladakhī; thus, $dugs-m\bar{\imath}-gun$, servants. It often occurs in the form un. Thus, $st\bar{a}-un$, horses; $dugs-m\bar{\imath}-un$, servants. $\underline{T}shang-k\bar{a}$, all, is also used as a plural suffix.

Case.—The various cases are formed in the same way as in Balti and Ladakhi.

The nominative and the accusative do not take any suffix. The nominative is used as the case of the subject with intransitive verbs. Thus, $m\bar{\imath}$ chik-la $b\bar{u}$ -tsā nyīs yot-pin, man one-to two sons were. The subject of a transitive verb is usually put in the case of the agent. This latter case is formed by adding is or, after vowels, s. Thus, attā-s gron b'yā-s, the father made a feast; khō-s zer-s, he said.

The suffix of the dative is la. Thus, mī chik-la, to a man. It is often also used to denote the object, as is also the case in Ladakhi; thus, khō-la rdungs, beat him.

The dative suffix often takes the form a, as is also the case in Ladakhi. Thus. bātshā-va, to a king; nang-a, inside.

The suffix of the ablative is $n\bar{a}$; thus, $a \dot{c} \bar{a} c h i k - n\bar{a}$, from a father. Ne. which also occurs, seems to be a loan from Ladakhi; thus, sū-î-khā-nē, from above whom, from whom ?

The suffix of the genitive is i; thus, $at-\bar{i}$, i.e. $at\bar{a}-i$, of a father.

The suffix of the locative is na and perhaps sometimes nang; thus, rzhung-na, in-The dative is often used instead; thus, khang-ma-a, in the house.

There are only a few traces of the terminative. Thus, $d\bar{e}$ -r, there. In most cases the dative is used instead, as is also the case in Ladakhī.

Other relations are indicated by means of postpositions. Such are dun-la, shi-ti-a, before; rgyab-na, behind; khā, on; khā-nē, from; par-la, from; phī-a, for sake; nyampō, with.

Adjectives.—Adjectives are formed as in Ladakhī and Baltī. The suffixes khan and chan form possessive adjectives. Thus, lisang-khan, beggar; rin-chan, value-possessing, dear. The suffixes pa, ba, pō, and mō are used as in Ladakhī and other connected forms of speech. Thus, bar-pa, middle; rgyal-ba, good; chhō-pō, great; l'agh-mō, good.

The adjective precedes the qualified noun in the nominative; thus, <u>tsun-tsē</u> bū-<u>ts</u>ā, the little son; $kar-p\bar{o}$ sta, the white horse. Mang-mo, much, many, sometimes precedes and sometimes follows the noun it qualifies. Thus, mang-mo kha, much anger; zhak mang-mō, many days.

Mā, much, and man-na, if it is not, are often prefixed in order to form an absolute comparative and superlative. Thus, $m\bar{a}$ nor- \bar{o} , better; man-na nor- \bar{o} , better, best.

The particle of comparison is basang, i.e. perhaps bas-yang, from also; compare Ladakhī sang. Thus, khuri phō-nō khuri ā-chē basang thon-mō duk, his younger brother is taller than his sister.

Numerals.—The first numerals are given in the list of words. They follow the word they qualify. There are no traces of generic particles. Note phet-ang sum, two and a half, as in Ladakhī.

Pronouns.—The following are the personal pronouns:—

ngā, ngā-rang, I. khyod, khye-rang, yerang, ya-rang (=nyidrang), thou. nga-s, nga-res (=ngakhye-ri-s, khye-rangrang-is), by me. is, ya-rang-is, by thee. ngā-la, ngā-rang-la, to khyod-la, khyed-la, me. khye-rang-la, rang-la, to thee. nga-ri (=ngakhye-ri, khye-rang-i, $rang ext{-}i)$, my. ya-ri, thy. nga-chā, I and they, khye-chā, khyen-tang, nga-tang, I and you. nga-cha-s, nga-tang-is, khye-cha-s, khyentang-is, khyen-ti-s, by us. by you. $nga-ch\bar{\imath} \ (=nga-chag-gi),$ khye-che, khyen-tang $ngi-ti \ (=nged-kyi),$ i, khyen-ti, your. our.

khō, khō-rang, he.

khō-s, khō-rang-is. khur-is, by him.

khō-la. khō-rang-la, to him.

khō-rang-i, khō-i, khur-i, his. $kh\bar{o}$ -tang, khong, they.

khon-tang-is, khongis, by them.

khon-tang-i, khon-t-i, their.

Ngā and ngā-rang, I, are apparently used without any difference. The final rang in ngā-rang, khye-rang, khō-rang, means 'self.' 'It is used alone in ngari atē bū-tsa-s rang-i āchē-nang bag-ston b'ya-s, my uncle's son-by his own sister-with wedding made.

Demonstrative pronouns are $d\bar{\imath}$, $d\bar{o}$, $d\bar{u}$, $d\bar{\imath}$ -u, this; \bar{e} , $d\bar{e}$, that. A plural form is

apparently de-rayang, they.

Interrogative pronouns are $s\bar{u}$, who ? $g\bar{a}$, which ? $ch\bar{\imath}$, what ? $ch\bar{\imath}$ -la, why ? $\underline{tsam}_{\underline{ts}}$

Indefinite pronouns are formed from the same bases; thus, sū-ang, anyone; chang,

anything.

There are no relative pronouns. The interrogative pronouns are sometimes used instead, in connexion with participles. Thus, yul-la $ch\bar{\iota}$ yot-pa, country-in what being, all that is in the country; $g\bar{a}$ $b\bar{u}$ - $\underline{t}\bar{s}$ $h\bar{a}$ rgyal-ba song-na, which son good going-if, the son who is going to turn out well; gron $s\bar{u}$ -i l agh- $m\bar{o}$ $chh\bar{a}$ -na, feast whose good going, he whose feast is becoming good; nga-ri $ch\bar{\iota}$ yot-khan- $p\bar{o}$, my what being, all that is mine. The suffix na added in some of these examples corresponds to the na which is used in relative clauses in Ladakh $\bar{\iota}$.

In nga-ri yong-khan-chī, mine is coming what, what is to be my share, chī is probably the indefinite article.

Verbs.—The verb substantive is formed from the bases in, yot, and duk. All those bases are also used as auxiliary verbs.

The base alone is sometimes used as a **present**; thus, in, am, art, is, and so forth; yot, is; son, he is alive. Usually, however, et or duk is added; thus, $chh\bar{e}t$, i.e. $chh\bar{a}$ -et, I go; rdung-duk, I strike.

A compound present is formed by adding duk to the participle in in; thus, dug-gin-duk, he lives; chhe-n-duk (= $chh\bar{a}$ -in-duk), he goes.

The past base is formed by adding s; thus, b'ya-s, did; rdung-s, struck. The vowel a of the base is changed to o in zo-s, ate, base za.

A compound past tense is formed by adding the verb substantive to the past base. Thus, yong-s-et, has come.

The present is sometimes also used to denote the past especially with intransitive verbs, as is also the case in Ladakhi; thus, thop, he is found.

A compound past is also formed by means of the suffix pa. It is by origin a participle, and the verb substantive can therefore be added. Thus, yot-pa, was; yot-pa, in, was; zer-et-pa, he said; $z\bar{e}-et-pa$, he ate; rgos-uk-pa, it was necessary; $sh\bar{z}-s-pa$, he had died; rdung-s-et-pa, I had struck; rdung-duk-s-pa, I was striking.

The suffix ma is used instead of pa in tang-ma met-pa, did not give.

Forms such as shī-sē yot-pa, having died was, he had died, of course also occur.

The future is formed by adding uk, or, after nasals, also nuk. Thus, zer-uk, I shall say; tang-nuk, I shall give.

The imperative is often the mere present or past base. Thus, duk, be; rdung-s, strike. As in Ladakhī an o is substituted for the a of the base; thus, zô, eat; tong, give; longs, get up.

The suffixes shik and ang are sometimes added; thus, sdyak-shik, prepare.

Verbal nouns.—The tense bases, with or without the suffixes pa, $ch\bar{a}$ and chas, are used as verbal nouns. Thus, yot-pa, to be; zer-ba, to say; rdung-chas, to strike; compare also $ltanm\bar{o}$, a spectacle.

Participles.—The verbal nouns are also used as participles. Thus, rches-pa, beloved; tang-ma met-pa, giving was not, he did not give.

A suffix khan is used to form present and past participles. Thus, yong-khan, coming; ltsang-khan, begging, beggar; yongs-khan-pō, come-having-the, he who came.

Adverbial and conjunctive participles are formed by adding the suffixes $s\bar{e}$ and $t\bar{e}$; thus, $sh\bar{\imath}-s\bar{e}$, dying; that- $t\bar{e}$, gladly. \bar{E} is sometimes used in the same way. Thus, zer- $r\bar{e}$, saying. Such forms are occasionally also used as verbal nouns. Thus, zer- $r\bar{e}$ - $n\bar{a}$, saying from, having said; $log\underline{h}$ - \underline{s} - \bar{e} - $n\bar{a}$, returned-having-from, having returned. On the other hand, the verbal noun can also be used as a conjunctive participle. Thus, drang-s-pa, having filled; $m\bar{a}$ zer-ba, not saying.

Passive voice.—There is no passive voice. Passivity is sufficiently indicated by the absence of the suffix of the agent. Thus, stor-s-et-pa, he was lost.

Causatives are formed by means of the prefix s. Thus, s-kon, put on. As in Ladakhī it is, however, more common to add the auxiliary chhuk-chas; thus, khō yong-chhuk, make him come.

The negative particle is a prefixed $m\bar{a}$. Thus, $m\bar{a}$ song, he did not go; $m\bar{a}$ zer-s, he did not say. As in Ladakhī, $m\bar{i}$ is probably used instead in the present and future tenses. Compound negative tenses are formed by adding met and man; thus, tang-ma met-pa, giving was-not, did not give.

The interrogative particle is \bar{a} as in Ladakhi; thus, khō yong-ed-dā, does he come?

Order of words.—The usual order of words is subject, indirect object, direct object, verb. In $d\bar{\imath}$ -u mul- $p\bar{o}$ $kh\bar{o}$ -la tong, this rupee him-to give, the direct object is put before the indirect one for the purpose of emphasizing it.

For further details the specimens which follow should be consulted. The first is a version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son, and the second a popular tale. A list of Standard Words and Phrases will be found on pp. 140 and ff. I owe the specimens to the kindness of the Rev. A. H. Francke.

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY, TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

TIBETAN.

PURIK DIALECT.

SPECIMEN I.

(Rev. A. H. Francke, 1906.)

(Purik.)

nyis yot-pin. Dē-rayang-nā <u>ts</u>un<u>ts</u>ē-s atā-la chig-la bū-tshā zer-s. Mĭ Them-from the-little-by father-to said. one-to twoMan 80n8 were. tong.' Dē-kha-na khō-s atā, nga-ri yong-khan-chī nga-rang-la nor Thereafter him-by riches coming me-to give. O father, my zhak mang-mô song-sē, dē rgvab-na sgō-sē tang-s. Yang mā And days many not going, that divided-having after gave. yang thagh-ring sak mal-chik bevas-sē vul chig-a tsuntsēs drul-s: far little-by all place-one done-having and country one-to went: hleb-sē khō-s khuri dē-khā nor-gun yang zŏ-stë hisriches-all eaten-having there arrived-having him-by and Sak tsar-ba-na dē yul-nang mang-mõ zan-skon skyal-s. song. Allfinishing-from **th**at country-in wasted. muchfood-dearth went. Khō-rang ltsang-khan-la gyur-song. Dĭ-u yul-li phyug-pö chig-gi bīs-ba He beggar-to turned. This country-of rich-man one-of servant Khō-s khu-ri zhing-la tshō-a-la tang-s. dug-s. Khō-s phag-gis lived. Him-by hi8 field-to pasture-for sent.Him-by swine-by that-te ze-et-pa, amao zas-pō sus-ang tang-ma met-pa. Dē-khā-nā strang eaten gladly ate, but anyone-by giving not-was. Thereafter sense logh-sē-nā 'nga-ri zer-s. att-ī shitia tsam-tsig las-mī vot 'my returned-having said. father-of before work-men how-many are drangs-pā ltō-a zos-sē hlag-ma sak-sē khur-ed. Nga-rang belly filling eaten-having remainder gathered-having carry-off. I ltoghs-pa-la shī-et. Ngā-rang lang-sē att-ī dē-r chhōk. yang die. hunger-with I arisen-having father-of there-to will-go, and zer-uk, "lē khō-la attā. nam-yang ya-ri dun-la nyes-pa beva-s, " O father, heaven-and will-say, you-of before sindid. ngā ya-ri bū-<u>ts</u>hā zer-ba byor-va Ngā-rang ya-ri las-mī met. chik Ι now your 80n to-say worthy not-am. Me your work-man one

tshoghsē zhog."' Dē-kha-nā langs-sē khu-ri att-ī shitia song. likeplace." The reafterarisen-having his father-of before went. Yang darang thagh-ring-la yot-pa, khō-rang thong-sē, 'ē sū in-tshug? Andyetfar being, seen-having, 'that who himis ? ? rgyuk-s skyen-jugs tang-s yang mik sam, yang langs-sē mang-mō thought, andarisen-having ran embrace gave and kissmany tang-s. Bū-tshā-s khō-la zer-s, 'lē attā, nga-res nam-yang ya-ri dun-la Son-by him-to said, O father, me-by heaven-and your-of before nyes-pā beya-s. Dā ngā ya-ri bū-tshā zer-ba bvor-va met. Attā-s did.Now I sinyour 80n to-say worthy not-am. Father-by khu-ri dugs-mī-gun-la zer-s, 'mā norbō gonchas khō-la phyung-sē his house-man-all-to said, 'very rich cloth taken-out-having him-to s-kon. yang khu-ri lag-pa-a serdubs-pō tog, yang rkang-ma-la kabsha make-wear, and hishandring fasten, and feet-to shoes s-kon. Yang zŏsē ltanmō bok: nga-ri dī-u bū-tshā shī-sē put-on. Andeating merriment make-will; my this 80n died-having thop. yot-pa, yang son: stor-s-et-pa, yang Dē-kha-nā khong rgā-mō they was. andlives; lost-was, and is-found.' Therefrom merry dug-s. were.

Дē wakhs-la khu-ri chhō-pō bū-tshā sa-khyat-la yot-pin. Yang khō Thathis field-in was. And he time-in great 80% khang-ma-nang nyē-mō hleb-sē hlū nang rtses tshor. Khō-s reached-having song and merry-making heard. Him-bu near 'dī-u chi-in?' chik-la. 'yong,' zer-rē tri-s. Khō-s khō-la dugs-mī 'come,' 'this what-is?' house-man one-to. saying asked. Him-by him-to yong-s-et, yang khye-ri zer-s. 'khve-ri attā-s chho-pō phō-nō gron your father-by 'your brother-younger come-is, and bigfeast chī-phī-a zer-na khō rdē-mō sen-mō-nang thun-s.' Yang khō-la beva-s, met." what-for ask-if he nice health-in And him-to phīstā-a yong-s khō-la sgrol-sē. vong-s, dū-i-phī-a khuri attā mang-mõ khā that-for anger came, his father outside came him-to flattering. much zer-s. Yang khō-s attā-la jawāb zer-s, 'lō mang-pō dugs-mī 'nang-la vong,' And him-by father-to answer said, 'years many 'inside come,' said.tshoghs ya-ri las b'ya-s. Ngā-ang ya-ri tam-pō-la nam-sang men mā-zer-na-yang, your order-to no not-said-although, your work did. I-also ever yadō-phrŏ-pa-nang nyam-po ngom-uk-pä zhaknga-ri nga-s chig helpmates-with together merry-making-of day one my me-by ya-ris ngā-la rī-gū chik-chik mā tangs. Ya-ri dĭu bū-tshā hleb na ang you-by me-for kidone-one notgave. Thy this 80% arriving-when-also

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löli-mö nyam-pö dug-sē khō-s khu-ri nor gron beya-s; zo-s.' Attā-s with sat-having ate.' feast gavest; him-by his riches harlots Father-by khō-la zer-s, 'lē bū-tshā, khye-rang ngā-rang-na nyam-pō zhak-dang duk-duk: him-to said, 'O 80n. thou me with daily art; yot-khan-pö khye-rang-i yang nga-ri chī yot. Amão ltan-mō nang what and my substance thine is. Butmerriment and that-chuk-pa rgos-uk-pa. \mathbf{Chi} zer-ba-na, Khye-ri dī-u phō-nō pleasure-causing proper-was. What say-if, Thy thisyounger-brother shī-s-pa, yang son: stors-et-pa, yang thop. died-had, again was-alive; lost-was, again was-found.'

[No. 3.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

TIBETAN.

PURIK DIALECT.

SPECIMEN II.

A STORY OF A KING.

(Rev. A. H. Francke, 1906.)

(Purik.)

Bāt-shā yot-tshug. Bāt-shā-va bū sum yot-tshug. Yot-pa-chig-na King King-to 10as. 80n8 three were. Being-of bū rin-chan nang chhō-pō rches-pa yot-tshug. Bāt-shā zer-et-pa, ʻlē bū, eldest dearand beloved 80n 10a8. King said. 0 80n. Zer-rē-na <u>ts</u>hang-ka-a khu-ri khar rzhung-na sak khye-rang-la tang-nuk.' palace midst-in allthee-to give-will. Said-having all-to himself-of hitia yong zer-rē khyong-s. Bāt-shā-s zer-s. 'lē bū<u>ts</u>hā-gun, askvě-la refore come saying brought. King-by said. .0 son-all, to-morrow thyenti-s gron sd'ya<u>kh</u>-shik. Gā būtshā rgyal-ba song-na khar yul Which turns-out-if palace country you-by feast prepare. 80n good tang-nuk.' \mathbf{B} ū- \mathbf{t} shā tshang-ka khun-ti dug-sā dug-sā gyal-chhas dō-la kingdom him-to give-will.' Sons alltheir house-to house-to went. chhō-po Bar-pa yang nang-a song-sē gron sdeyakh-s. Tsuntse **Iiddling** andeldest inside gone-having feast prepared. Little ū-tshā khu-ri nang-a-ang kokol song-sé song-sē nyal-s. Khō-i inside-to-also his80% gone-having 80TTY gone-having slept. His'khye-rang chi-la ko-kol hōchō-s tri-s. song? Khye-rang sū-a chang ady-by asked, 'thou what-for sorry gone? Thou anyone-to anything mā-zer-ba nyal-s.' Rgyal-pō-i tsuntsē bū-tshā-s zer-s, 'lē chōchō, ngā-la ot-said-having liest-down." King's youngest son-by said, O wife, 'kbyen-tang ā-chō-nō tshang-ka-s rgyal-pō-s mol-s, -ring 'you elder-brother-younger-brother king-by said, all-bu -day skyē-la ngā nang ngī drag-pa-zhan-ma chhēmī-tsuntsē-la mī-vul-la chī and noblemen-other old-young-to man-country-in what ·morrow me my zā-snā sak sd°yakh-sē tong. Gron sū-i t-pi . gron l'agh-mō all prepared-having feast give. Feast whose ing food-different good hā-na khar rgyal-chhas thob-duk. dō-a ngī nor-zan es-if him-to riches-food palace kingdom will-be-got. my VOL. III, PART I. H

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FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

There was once a king, who had three sons. The eldest son was dear and beloved by him, and he said to him, 'O son, I will give you all that is in my palace.' He then summoned all his sons and said, 'O sons, prepare all of you a feast for to-morrow. I will give the palace, the country, and the kingdom to him who turns out best.'

The sons returned to their houses, and the two eldest ones began to prepare the feast. The youngest son also went home, but went to bed full of sorrow. His wife asked him, 'why are you sorry? You have gone to bed without speaking to anybody.' The king's youngest son said, 'O wife, to-day the king said to us, "you should all, the eldest as the youngest, to-morrow give a feast to me, and my officials and dependants, young and old, having prepared all the food of the country. My property, palace, and kingdom shall be his whose feast is best."'

LADAKHI.

The province of Ladakh, which is now included in the Ladakh Wazarat of Kashmir, has often been called Great Tibet, as opposed to Little Tibet or Baltistan. This name was known to the chronicler Śrīvara, and also to the Chinese annalists, who call Ladakh 'Great Poliu.' It is the Bod Butun of the modern Kaśmīrīs. The Tibetans call the province La-dwags and Mar-yul. Originally it belonged to Tibet, but in the tenth century it became an independent kingdom. From the end of the 17th century Ladakh was under commercial contract with Kashmir. In 1834 it was invaded by the troops of Gulāb Singh, ruler of Kashmir, and was soon after added to the Kashmir State.

The prevailing population of Ladakh are Buddhists of Tibetan race. According to Dr. Stein, the Zoji La pass, on the high road from Srinagar to Dras and Ladakh, is the ethnographic watershed between Kashmir and the territory of the Bhauttas, i.e., the Tibeto-Burman population of Baltistan and Ladakh.

The language of Ladakh is usually known under the name of Ladakhī. At the last Census of 1901 it has been returned under the head of Budhī. It is also understood by most Baltīs and Purik people.

The total population of Ladakh at the Census of 1891 was 28,274. The corresponding figure at the last Census of 1901 was 31,620. No local estimates of the number of speakers of Ladakhī, the principal language of the district, have been forwarded for the purposes of this Survey. At the last Census of 1901, the number of speakers was as follows:—

A.	Spoken at home—									29,716
т	Ladakh (Budhi)	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		25,110
В.	Spoken abroad—								_	
	Assam	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	7	
	Punjab							•	62	
	Punjab States	_					_	_	21	
	z anjao Ouacoo 17	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		90
								TOTA	L	29,8 06

AUTHORITIES-

Ladakhī has been incidentally dealt with in several works on Tibetan in general. They will be found mentioned in the introduction to Tibetan. The list which follows registers the works dealing with Ladakhī alone which I have come across:—

- RAMSAY, H.,—Western Tibet: a practical Dictionary of the Language and Customs of the Districts included in the Ladak Wazarat. Lahore, 1890.
- Marx, K.,—Three Documents relating to the History of Ladakh. Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. lx, Part i, 1891, pp. 97 and ff.; Vol. lxii, Part i, 1894, pp. 94 and ff.; Vol. lxxi, Part i, 1902, pp. 21 and ff.
- Sandberg, Rev. Graham,—Hand-book of Colloquial Tibetan. A practical guide to the language of Central Tibet. Calcutta, 1894. Part iii contains vocabularies, Ladaki, etc.
- FRANCKE, A. H.,—Die Respektssprache im Ladaker tibetischen Dialekt. Zeitschrift der deutschen morgenländischen Gesellschaft, Vol. lii, 1898, pp. 275 and ff.
 - Ladakhi Songs, edited in co-operation with Rev. S. Ribbach and Dr. E. Shawe. Leh, 1899-1902.
 - A Collection of Ladakhi Proverbs. Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. 1xix, Part i, 1900, pp. 135 and ff.
 - Second Collection of Ladakhi Proverbs. Leh, 1903.
 - "
 Sketch of Ladakhi Grammar. In co-operation with other Moravian missionaries.

 Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. lxx, Part i, 1900, Extra No. 2. Calcutta, 1901.
 - Ladakhi Songs. Indian Antiquary, Vol. xxxi, 1902, pp. 87 and ff., 304 and ff.
 - "Kleine Beiträge sur Phonetik und Grammatik des Tibetischen. Zeitschrift der Deutschen morgenländischen Gesellschaft, Vol. Ivii, 1903, pp. 285 and n.
 - ,, A Language Map of West Tibet with notes. Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal,.
 Vol. lxxiii, 1904, pp. 362 and ff.

H 2

Classical Tibetan is also, with some modifications, used in writing by the educated classes. The Rev. A. H. Francke has translated the Gospel of St. Mark into the Ladakhī dialect, and he has also published a series of popular texts in the dialect. The orthography is, in such works, not in exact agreement with the spoken language, but has been adapted to the usage of classical Tibetan. The same is the case with the specimens forwarded for the purposes of this Survey, viz., a version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son and a popular tale, and, further, a list of Standard Words and Phrases. They have all been prepared by the Rev. S. Ribbach of Leh, and they are printed as I have received them. The remarks on Ladakhī which follow are based on Mr. Francke's Ladakhī grammar and only occasionally draw from the materials prepared by Mr. Ribbach.

The dialect of Ladakh is not the same all over the district. Our information about the local variations is, however, rather scanty. The dialect of Khalatse and of Lower Ladakh generally has preserved some old features which have been lost in the Leh dialect. Thus the genitive is distinguished from the case of the agent, and several words have preserved more ancient forms. Compare sbyar-chas, Leh zhar-ches, to stick to; thoras, Leh thore, to-morrow.

Mr. Francke distinguishes three sub-dialects of Ladakhī, viz.,-

- 1. The Sham dialect spoken from about Hanu in the west to a line midway between Saspola and Basgo in the east;
- 2. The Leh dialect, to the east of Sham, and stretching eastwards almost so far as Sheh;
- 3. The Rong dialect to the east of the Leh dialect.

The Tibetan spoken in Zangskhar agrees with Rong; only the north-western districts show traces of the Sham dialect. In Rubshu, on the other hand, a form of Central Tibetan is spoken.

The difference between these minor dialects is principally one of pronunciation. Compare the table which follows:—

	Wr	itten for	m.			Sham.	Leh.	Rong.
Sgam, box	•	•		•		Sgam.	Gham.	Gham.
Sbaste, secretly	•	•	•	•		Sbaste.	Vaste.	Vaste.
Skampo, dry	•	•	•	•		Skampo.	Skampo.	Hampo.
Chospin, made	•	•	•	•		Chospin.	Chospin.	Chofin.
Bya, bird	•	•	•	•		Bya.	Ja.	J_a ,
Phyogs, side	•	•	•	•		Phyogs.	Ohhogs.	Olihogs.
Brag, rock	•	•	•	•	•	Brag.	Drag.	Drag.
Phrugu, child		% ^. ®	•	•	•	Phrugu.	Thrugu.	Thrugu.
Grangmo, cold		•	•	•	•	Drangmo.	Drangmo.	Drangmo.
Khrims, right	•	. •	•	•	•	Thrims.	Thrims.	Thrims.

The dialect described in Mr. Francke's grammar and in the ensuing remarks is that of Leh. I shall only in one or two places make some remarks on the state of affairs in other dialects of Ladakh.

Pronunciation.—The vowels are the same as in classical Tibetan. They are long when final, and short in all other cases. The final a of case-suffixes and the article is likewise short; thus, la, to; na, in; pa, article.

Soft consonants are hardened at the end of words; thus, *mik*, eye. They are, however, preserved before case-suffixes; thus, *mig-gi*, of the eye. In other positions they are generally pronounced as in English. Occasionally they are, however, hardened in imitation of the Lhasa dialect.

The aspirated hard consonants are pronounced as the corresponding unaspirated letters in English. The corresponding unaspirated letters are pronounced as in Tibet without any admixture of an aspiration. They preserve the hard sound when they are preceded by a prefixed or superadded letter in classical Tibetan, whether this preceding letter is pronounced or not, and when they are followed by a y. Thus, tang-ches, classical Tibetan gtong-ba, to give; ka, classical bka, word; sta, classical rta, horse; kyir, round; kyong-po, hard. In words such as nga-tang, we, the initial t is preserved by the preceding syllable, or t belongs to the base of the pronoun.

In other cases an initial hard consonant is apt to be softened. Thus, *kab-sha*, shoe, becomes *gabsha*; *kram*, cabbage, becomes *dram*; *pagbu*, brick, becomes *bagbu*, and so forth.

This latter rule is not observed in borrowed words or in the case of the consonants ch and <u>ts</u>.

The consonant ng is pronounced as the ng in English 'song.' Final ng is dropped in the Rong dialect of the upper-most Indus valley.

R is pronounced as in Hindöstäni. When preceding another consonant its pronunciation is somewhat modified so that it resembles the guttural French or German r. R and a following k or g (if not followed by g) assumes the sound of g in German 'loch.'

When r follows another consonant it is very weakly sounded, somewhat like the English r. It does not coalesce with the preceding consonant as in Tibet. Thus, drug, six; kabra, a herb. The more we advance towards the west, the more distinctly is the r pronounced. When we proceed eastwards, it gradually becomes more apt to coalesce with the preceding consonant and form a cerebral.

The consonant b between two vowels or preceded by ng, r, l, and b is pronounced like English v.

Compound letters are the same as in classical Tibetan. Several prefixed letters are, however, silent. Thus, ka, classical Tibetan bka, word. The pronunciation of others is modified in various ways.

The prefixes r and s are often interchanged, and both are often substituted for b, d, and g; thus, rtags and stags, present; sgam and rgam, box; bde-mo becomes rde-mo, nice; rgos, classical dgos, necessary; stam, classical gtam, speech, and so forth. Sh is sometimes substituted for r and s; thus, shkang-ling instead of rkang-ling, flute.

Prefixes before l become h; thus, hla, classical gla, wages; hleb-ches, classical eleb-pa, to arrive, and so forth.

In Rong and Leh br and gr become dr; pr and kr become tr; phr and khr become thr. B, p, and ph coalesce with a following y to a palatal. These rules are not observed in Lower Ladakh, so far as the labials are concerned, and the labials are retained before y in Leh if e or i follows, y being, in that case, dropped.

S or r and a following ch become sh; thus, nyis-chu becomes nyi-shu, twenty. Similarly r and s coalesce with a following j to zh, with a following ts to s, and with a following dz to z.

A mute consonant is often dropped before r, and a preceding s then often becomes sh; thus, ra, classical dgra, enemy; shra, classical skra, hair.

A final *l* is often dropped; thus, *slel* becomes *le*, name of the capital of Ladakh; rgya-po instead of rgyal-po, king, etc.

An n is often added after final vowels. Thus, nye-mo and nyen, near; me-tok and men-tok, flower.

Aspirated hard letters are often softened within a word or between vowels; thus, a-je instead of a-chhe, elder sister; a-yu instead of a-khu, husband.

Nasals are often interchanged; thus, dngul and mul, silver; khronpa and khrompa, well; rmilam and nyi-lam dream, and so on. The two latter forms are both derived from rmyi-lam, and the remaining doublets would probably be easily explained if we knew more about pre-classical Tibetan.

In the Rong dialect of the upper Indus valley a prefixed r and s coalesce with a following p and k to f and h, respectively; thus, yangspa becomes yafa, fun; mgyogspa gyogfa, quick; skad becomes had, voice; rkang-dung becomes hangdung, trumpet, and so forth. Similarly rg and sg become kh, and sb and rb become v in Rong and Leh. In the Zangskar dialect a prefixed r or s coalesces with a following t or d to th and dh respectively; thus, th ong, classical st ong, thousand. Compare the table above.

Tones.—Like Baltī and Purik, Ladakhī is generally speaking devoid of tones. A few tones can, however, occasionally be observed. Thus, zhag, day, is pronounced in a low, sha, meat, in a high tone.

Articles.—There are no definite articles. The numeral chik, one, is used as an indefinite article. The form chik is used after words ending in g, d, and b; it becomes shik after s and zhik in all other cases. Thus, zhag-chik, a day; las-shik, a work; phe-zhig, some flour. In Khalatse the article is pronounced chik after g, d, b, and n, and zhik after vowels.

The suffix po or bo can be added to most nouns. It apparently only emphasises the meaning. Thus, mik-po, the eye; i she-ma-bo, this lady.

Nouns.—Gender is distinguished as in other connected dialects by using different words or by adding suffixes. Thus, mi, man; bo-mo, woman: khyi, dog; khyi-mo, bitch, and so forth.

Number.—There are two numbers, the singular and the plural. The plural is not indicated when it appears from the context. The usual plural suffixes as kun, tehang-ma, tehang-ka, sak, all; mang-po, many; khachik, several, some, and so forth.

Case.—The mere base, without any suffix is used as a nominative and an accusative.

The subject of transitive verbs is put in the case of the agent, which is formed by adding s, or, after consonants, is; thus, mang-po-s, by many. Instead of s we sometimes find si and sis; thus, meme-si zer-s, grandfather said.

The case of the agent, however, is only formed in the way just described in Khalatse and Lower Ladakh. In the dialects spoken in Leh and Upper Ladakh, on the other hand, the case of the agent does not differ from the genitive and is formed by simply adding i; thus, kho-i zer-s, he said. Such a form occurs in one place in the specimens prepared by Mr. Ribbach.

In Lower Ladakh the dative is occasionally used instead of the case of the agent; thus, nga-la tshor-song, I heard. Compare Balti.

The suffix of the dative is la, or, in ordinary conversation, usually a, before which a final consonant is doubled. The dative is used to denote various relations of time and place. Thus, Le-la chha-rug, he goes to Leh; $ng\ddot{a}$ lag-la, in my hand, and so forth. It is sometimes also used as an accusative; thus, khyi-s mi-la tham-s, the dog bit the man.

The suffix of the genitive is *i*, as has already been remarked; thus, rgyal-po-i khar, the king's castle. The suffix *i* coalesces with a preceding a to the sound ä; thus, amä phi-la, for the mother's sake. After vowels, however, the genitive suffix is sometimes si instead of *i*; thus, Ishe-si khang-pa, Ishe's house. A final consonant is doubled before the suffix *i*; thus, miggi, of an eye.

The suffix of the ablative is nas, which in Leh is pronounced nä. Thus, i-nä, from this; zhing-nä, from the field; khang-pa-nä, from the house. The ablative is also used to denote the material of which a thing is made, and in Leh it often has the meaning of a locative; thus, sa-nä, of earth; a-nä, there, and thence.

The locative and the terminative are usually replaced by the dative. The old locative suffix na occurs in postpositions such as nang-na, within, in. Old terminatives are a-ru, de-ru, there, thither; i-ru, here; zhan-ma-ru, to the other; <u>ts</u>hang-ma-ru, to all; id-du (bor-ches), (to keep) in mind.

Other relations are indicated by means of postpositions, which are usually added to the genitive. Such are dun-nä, from the presence; chhoks-nä, from the direction; nang-nä, out of; nang-na, within; nang-la, into; kha-nä, through, by; kha, on, upon; tsa, near; dun-la, before; dang, with; phila, for. In Lower Ladakh many of these postpositions are added to the base. Some postpositions govern the ablative; thus, lo mang-po-nä pharla, from many years.

Adjectives.—Adjectives usually follow the word they qualify; thus, sta rgyalla, a good horse. When the adjective precedes the qualified noun, it is put in the genitive; thus, dambä chhos, the holy religion; bod-di thrims-la, according to Tibetan custom; duk-chan-ni rul, the poisonous snake.

This is especially the case in some certain phrases, and with adjectives denoting nationality or such as are formed by means of the possessive suffix chhan.

Adjectives do not usually change for gender. Sometimes, however, the male suffixes pa, po, and the female suffixes ma, mo, are added. Thus, rgyal-po rgad-po, the old king; rgyal-mo rgad-mo, the old queen.

Comparison is effected by adding sang to the compared noun, which is then often put in the genitive; thus, ngä khang-pai khang-pä sang rgyalla yot, my house this house than good is.

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Numerals.—The first numerals are given in the list of words. Where more than one form is given, the last one represents the pronunciation in Leh.

Numerals follow the noun they qualify.

'Half' is phet; thus, phed-ang druk, five and a half.

I have not found any instances of the use of generic particles in the materials available.

Pronouns.—The usual forms of the personal pronouns are as follows:—

nga, nga-rang, I. khyot, khyo-rang, nye-rang, kho, kho-rang, khong, he. thou. she, it. khyod-di, khyo-rang-ngi, khoi, kho-rang-ngi, ngä, nga-rang-ngi, my. nue-rang-ngi, thy. khong-ngi, his, etc. khyo-zha, nye-zha-rang, you. nga-zha, we, i.e. I and they, kho-gun, khong(-kun), ngatang, we, i.e. I and they. vou. khyo-zhä, nye-zha-rang-ngi, your. kho-gun-ni, their. nga-zhä, ngat-i, our.

'Self' is rang, genitive rang-ngi, own.

Demonstrative pronouns are *i*, this; *a*, that, which precede, and *di*, this; *de*, that, which generally follow the word they qualify. Instead of *de*, we often find *dena*, or, in the Rong dialect, *deka*. When used alone, the demonstrative pronouns commonly take the suffix *bo*; thus, *i-bo*, this; *dena-bo*, the same.

Interrogative pronouns are su, who? ga, which? chi, what?

There are no relative pronouns. The interrogative pronouns are sometimes used instead; thus, ga-bo-la thad-na de nen-shik, take what you like; nga ga-ru thad-duk de-ru chhen, I shall go where I please. If the relative sentence qualifies, and is not itself the representative of, the subject, object, or an adverbial adjunct of the principal sentence, the interrogative pronouns cannot be used. Relativity is in such cases expressed by means of relative participles, i.e., by the genitive case of the present or past participle followed by the qualified word. Thus, dik-pa cho-khan-ni mi-la rdung-duk, wrong doing-of man beat, I beat the man who does wrong.

Verbs.—Verbs are conjugated in the same way as in classical Tibetan. Only a few verbs can be used in a transitive as well as in an intransitive sense. Thus, ngā thuk-duk, I touch; ngā thuk-duk, I meet.

Some tense suffixes show a preference for certain persons. Thus, forms such as *choruk*, does; *cho-song*, did, are more commonly used in the third than in the first and second persons. Forms such as *cho-at*, do; *chos-pin*, did, on the other hand, are comparatively seldom used in the third person. On the whole, however, the various persons are not distinguished, and every tense suffix *can* be used for all persons.

Verb substantive.—The verb substantive has the bases duk, in, and yot. They are freely used in the formation of the tenses of other verbs. The forms at (Lower Ladakh et) and ok which are used in the same way, probably also contain various verbs substantive.

Present time.—The present base can always be found by rejecting the termination ches of the verbal noun. Thus, tang-ches, to give, present base tang.

The present base is often used alone in connexion with the negative particle mi; thus, mi thong, I do not see.

The usual present tense is formed from the present base by adding one of the auxiliaries duk, at (Lower Ladakh et), and ok. At is mostly used in lively conversation; in Lower Ladakh et is almost exclusively used. In Central Ladakh ok is only used with the verb in, to be, and rarely except in the third person. Thus, tang-duk, gives; yong-ngat, comes; in-nok, is. A final consonant is doubled before at and ok. Duk after vowels becomes ruk; thus, chha-ruk, goes.

A kind of compound present is formed from such verbs as denote a perception of the senses (with the exception of sight) or an action of the intellect, by adding rak, feels, to the infinitive ending in a; thus, shes-sa rak, I know.

A present definite is formed by adding duk to the participle ending in in or in-zhik; thus, las cho-in (-zhik) duk, he is doing work.

Past time.—The past base is formed from the present base by adding s; thus, tang-s, gave. If the present base ends in s, d, n, and often also if it ends in l or r, the past base does not differ from the present one. This is, moreover, always the case in the Changthang dialect, and in some intransitive verbs such as jung-ches, to happen; rak-ches, to feel; tshar-ches, to finish, and so forth. The past base of za-ches, to eat, is zo-s.

The past base is commonly used alone as a past tense. Thus, rak, he felt; thong-s, he saw; cho-s, he made.

A compound past is formed by adding in to the participle in pa, ba or spa. The final a of the suffix pa coalesces with the following in to in, or, if the base contains an i, to en. Thus, that-pin, liked; cho-s-pin, did; in-ben and yot-pin, was. Pin is often also added to the present tense ending in at, and this compound form denotes the continued or repeated action in the past; thus, thong-ngat-pin, saw often.

The participle ending in pa is used alone as a past tense before a direct statement, and, vulgarly, also at the end of a sentence. Thus, kho-s zer-pa, he said.

A compound past is also formed by adding yot-pin or ok to the conjunctive participle ending in te or ste, or the participle ending in pa. Thus, cho-s-te yot-pin, having done I was, I had done; zer-t-ok, said; tang-st-ok, gave; khyer-p-ok, carried off.

Other auxiliaries used in order to form past tenses are $\underline{ts}har$, finished, added to the present base; song, went, added to the past base; and $\underline{ts}huk$ (Lower Ladakh $\underline{ts}hogs$), like, similar (properly a dubitative addition), added to the present ending in at; thus, $shi-\underline{ts}har$, died; cho-s-song, did; $yong-ngat-\underline{ts}huk$, came. In the case of the verb za-ches, to eat, the past base is used before $\underline{ts}har$; thus, $zo-\underline{ts}har$, ate.

Future.—The future is formed by adding in to the present base. A preceding a is dropped; thus, tang-in, shall give; chhen, shall go. Chhen, shall go, is often added to the present base or to the infinitive ending in a; thus, khyong-chhen, shall bring; chhug-ga chhen, shall close.

Imperative.—The imperative base is formed by changing an a of the base to o, and by adding an s to verbs ending in a vowel. In verbs ending in a consonant and not containing an a, the present base is used in the imperative. Thus, sgang-ches, to fill; sgong, fill: lta-ches, to see; lto-s, look: zer-ches, to say; zer, say. Za-ches, to eat, has the imperative zo, eat.

The negative imperative is formed by prefixing ma to the present base; thus, ma za, do not eat.

The final s is used in all imperatives before the imperative particle chik (lit. once) which accordingly becomes shik; thus, tong-shik, give.

The suffix ang is often added to the imperative; thus, zer-ang, say; tong-ang, give; zos-ang, eat. Note the s of the latter form.

Verbal Nouns.—Several tense bases are used as verbal nouns, and postpositions are added to them. Thus, las cho-na, work doing-in, if you do the work; las gyoks-pa cho-s-pin-na, if you had done the work quickly; las de cho-in-zhik, whilst doing that work.

The suffix in in cho-in-zhik is probably originally the suffix of a locative. It corresponds to kyin, gyin, gin, yin, in classical Tibetan. The classical suffix seems to be formed from the genitive. The Ladakhi in is added to the present base, and in this way an adverbial participle is formed; thus, gucho tang-in tang-in duk-song, noise making-in making-in remained.

The base with the suffix a, before which a final consonant is doubled, is used as an infinitive; thus, drul-lamiduk, going-for not-is, he does not go; lta-a song, seeing-for went, he went to see. The suffix a is apparently the suffix a which forms datives and locatives of nouns, and corresponds to the classical la. Compare the locative meaning of a in sentences such as shi-ches-lamajiks-sa bar-khan-ni khang-pä nang-la song, dying not fearing-in burning-of house-of interior-to went, not fearing death she entered the burning house.

The most common verbal noun is formed by adding the suffix ches or che. In Lower Ladakh the suffix has the form chas, in Rong and Upper Ladakh che. The verbal noun is inflected like an ordinary noun. The dative ending in ches-la, chas-la, che-a, etc., is used as an infinitive of purpose. Thus, thong-ches, to see; ngalte yot-ches-si phi-la, tired being-of sake-for. because he was tired; yong-ches-la or yong-ches-si phi-la, in order to come.

The classical suffix pa, ba is sometimes also used, especially with the postposition phi-la; thus, $in-b\ddot{a}$ phi-la, being-of sake-for, in order to be; $mi\ mang-po\ dzoms-pa-sang$, men many gathering from, because many men had gathered.

Participles.—Some participles are simply various cases of the verbal noun. Such forms have already been mentioned above.

The common suffix of the present and past participle is *khan*, added to the present or past base; thus, *tang-khan*, giving; *tang-s-khan*, given. This participle is commonly used as a relative participle. Compare the remarks under the head of relative pronouns above.

The suffix pa, ba is used to form a participle which is freely employed in the formation of past tenses. Thus, zer-pa, or, commonly, zer-pin, said. Compare the remarks under the head of past time, above.

Conjunctive participles are formed by adding the suffix te to the present or past base; thus, zer-te, saying; song-s-te, having gone.

Passive Voice.—There is no passive voice. Passivity is sufficiently indicated by the absence of the suffix of the agent in the subject. Forms such as *khyong-s-te duk*, having-brought is, it is brought, have originally an active as well as a passive meaning.

Causal.—The causal was originally formed by means of a prefix s; thus, gang-ches, to be full; sgang-ches, to fill. The old initials have been modified in various

thus, drul-ches, to go; shrul-ches, to make go: bud-ches, to cease; phud-ches, to stop: chhad-ches, to be cut off; chad-ches, to cut, and so forth.

A modern causative is formed by adding *chhuk-ches*, to put in, to the present base; thus, *chha-chhuk-duk*, he makes go, he sends off.

Negative voice.—The negative particle is a prefixed mi or ma. Mi is used in the present and future, and before the verbal noun. Ma is used in the past tense and in the imperative. It is further commonly used before the conjunctive participle, the dative, ablative, and locative cases of the verbal noun ending in a, pasang, and na, and so forth. Thus, mi thong, he does not see; mi chha, I shall not go; mi tang-in, not giving; ma thong-s, did not see; ma yong-s-pin, did not come; ma chos-song, did not do; ma zer-tok, did not say; ma tang, do not give; las di ma lang this not finishing-in, if you do not finish this work.

Various compound negative bases are used; thus, cho-in-zhik mi duk, doing not is, he does not do; tang-nga mi duk, he does not give; ngal-la mi rak, does not feel tired; cho-a met, is not doing; cho ma tshar, to do not finished, did not do; silla met-pin, was not reading; chos-te met-pin, had not done; yongnga met-tshuk, came not, and so forth.

Interrogative particle.—An a is added to the verb in interrogative sentences if they do not contain an interrogative pronoun. A preceding consonant is doubled before a; thus, khyo-rang yong-in-na, will you come?

Order of words.—The usual order of words is subject, object, verb. The genitive precedes the qualified noun, adjectives and numerals usually follow it.

For further details the student is referred to Mr. Francke's grammar. The specimens which follow represent the spoken dialect of Ladakh, but the orthography of the literary language is used.

[No. 4.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

TIBETAN.

LADAKHĪ DIALECT.

SPECIMEN I.

(Rev. S. Ribbach, 1899.)

(LEH, LADAKH.)

च्रम्या त्युःस्याम् स्वर्ण्यस्य स्वर्णस्य स्वर्यस्य स्वर्णस्य स्

[No. 4.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

TIBETAN.

LADAKHĪ DIALECT.

SPECIMEN I.

TRANSLITERATION AND TRANSLATION.

(Rev. S. Ribbach, 1899.)

(LEH, LADAKH.)

Mi zhig-la bu-tsha ghnyis yod-pin. Do-nas bu chhung-po-s Man one-to twoThen 8028 were. 80n young-by a-pha-la zhus-pa, 'a-pha-le, nga-la thob-os-mkhan-ni nor-skal nga-la father-to requested, to-be-got-fit-being property-share 'father-o, me-to me-to stsal.' zhus-pa-sang a-pha-s nor bgos. De-nas mang-mo ma give. said-having father-by property divided. Then muchnot bu-tsha chhung-ngun-po gor-te nor khur-ste thag-ring yul delaying 80n young property taking-with-him far country zhig-ga langs-song. Nor tshang-ma phres-tor-behos. Nor sag one-to started. Property allspent-made. Property alltshar-te de vul-la mu-ge drag-po zhig yong-s-to kho-la finishing thatcountry-in famine heavy one come-having him-to dkags-po song. De-nas kho song-s-to yul-pa chig dang thug-s-te difficulty went. Then he gone-having cilizen one with met-having de-s kho zhing-kha-la phag tsho-ba-la btang-s. De-ru phag-kun-nis him field-in-to swine feeding-for sent. There pigs-by za-mkhan-ni gang-lo yang rang-ngi grod-pa grang-behug-ches-la thad-na-ang, eating-of husks even satisfied-making-for wishing-in-although, own belly ghtang-mkhan su-yang \mathbf{m} a yong-s. De-nas kho-la bsam-blo yong-s-to giving any-one not came. him-to consideration come-having Then zer-pa, 'ngai a-pha-la gla-pa mang-po yod-de; kho-kun-la za-rgyu said, 'my father-to servants many being; them-to food mang-po vod. Nga-ni i-ru ltog-ri-la shi-ches-rag. Da nga I-on-the-other-hand here hunger-in much is.dic. Now I lang-s-te a-phai rtsar song-s-te, "nam-mkha dang nyi-rang-ngi arisen-having father-of 'io gone-having, " heaven and you-of

mdun-du nyes-pa bcho-s-pa-sang bu-tsha zer-os-chan ma nyi-rang-ngi before sin done-having-from to-say-worthy not son your dran-dra mdzad," de-zug yin-te, nyi-rang-ngi gla-pa zhig dang nga with alikemake," thus being. servant oneme your drung-du zhu-vin,' bsam-s-te lang-s-te aphai song. A-pha-s say-will, thought-having arisen-having father-of towent. Father-by thag-ring-nas yong-nga mthong-s-te snying-rje tshor-te bu-tshai rtsa-r far-from to-come seen-having compassion feeling son-of near btang-s. rgvug-s-te [skyen-jus btang-s-te kho-la De-nas am [embracing given-having run-having him-to kissgave. Then bu-tsha-s, 'a-pha-le, nga-s nam-mkha dang nyirang-ngi mdun-du nyes-pa me-by father-o, son-by, heaven and your before sinbchos-pa-sang da-nas-phar-la nyi-rang-ngi bu-tsha zer-os-chan man, done-having-from not-am? now-from-since say-fit your 80N zhu-s. A-pha-s ghyog-po-kun-la, 'da gon-chhes tshang-mai sang rgyal-la said. Father-by servants-to, 'now cloth allfrom goodzhig i-ru khyong-ste kho-la ghser-ghdub. rkang-pa-la skon: lag-pa-la here brought-having him-to hand-on gold-ring, put; foot-on skon-chig. Chi-phi-la ngai bu-tsha kab-sha vang zer-na, shi-ste What-for died-having shoe alsoput. said-if, my sonlog-s-te thob-pa-sang, nga-tang-ngi stor-te sems ghson-te song; found-being-from, alive went: lost-being again our soulzer-te kho-kun skyid-po beho-ba-la beho dgos,' de-zug langs. dga-mo thusmake-to make must,' saying they merry began. cheerful

De-za-na a-jo zhing-nas log-ste yong-s. Khang-pa dang elder-brother field-from back House with That-time-at came. nye-mo sleb-kyi-ma rol-mo dang rtsem-'ajo ghyog-po zhig-la tshor-pa-sang, arriving musicand dancing hearing-from, servant one-to near bcho-ba-yin-nog?' zer-te dris-pa-sang, 'i-bo chi ghyog-po-s, bod-de. doing-are?' saying 'this what asking-from, servant-by. calling, A-pha-s bslebs. khams-bzang-po-la kho 'khvo-rang-ngi no Father-by he health-good-in younger-brother came. your zer-te bcho-ba-yod,' tshor-pa-sang kho-la thob mgron sro log-ste feast making-is,' hearing-from him-to was-found saying anger back De-phi-la chha-ches thad. a-pha phi-log-la nang-la $\mathbf{m}\mathbf{a}$ yong-s-te father wished. Therefore outside inside notcome-having to-go dpe-ra bde-mo-nas, 'nang-la yong,' zer-te slu-s. Kho-s bing-s-te friendly-in, 'inside come, saying entreated. Him-bu come-having way i-zam-zhig nyi-rang-ngi zhabs-tog lo bchos-te a-pha-la, 'nga-s service your done-having se-many father-to. ·me-by years

yang; nyi-rang-ngi-s ngai gal bka-nas nam-yang ma nyi-rang-ngi you-by even; not transgressed my word-trom ever your ri-gu phi-la nga-la zhig bcho-ches-si yang mdza-bo-kun dang sgol-sgol kidmaking-of me-to one sake-for even with feast friends nyi-rang-ngi bu-<u>ts</u>ha lo-li chhung-ngun-po stsal-song. Yin-na-yang \mathbf{m} a harlots young Being-in-even 80n your not gavest. sleb ma-thog-tse god-la btang-s-te gran-te sag dang nor loss-in given-having arrived immediately intercourse-having property allwith De-nas a-pha-s mol-pa, 'khyod-rang khoi mgron zhig mdzad-s.' gavest.' Then father-by said, 'you sake-for feast his one nga-la yod-mkhan dang mnyam-po dug-ste tshang-ma nam-sang nga withtogether been-having me-to being allalway8 me khyo-rang-ngi shi-tshar-te khyod-kyi yang yin. Da no alsois. Now younger-brother died-having yours your dgos.' stor-te bcho ghson; thob-pa-sang sems dga-mo lives; lost-having-been found-because makemind merry must.'

[No. 5.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

TIBETAN.

LADAKHI DIALECT.

SPECIMEN II.

A PIECE OF LADAKHI FOLK-LORE.

(Rev. S. Ribbach, 1899.)

(LEH, LADAKH.)

रुषा उमायार्के दार्शेष के वर्षे विवासित रोष। मिनी या बादा का बाद सार्वे र कंदा बार्के र व्या के र वा कंदा विवास र वा हैट या उट से र स्मानक सेट या सद। श्रीट से बिना से निष्क सेट र से बिनाया नास हिर के पेर र मेता अपसार र वित्राक्षके सम्बद्धाः के दिन्दि विना नित्र प्येत नश्च समा ने नश्चिम स्वद्धाः वित्र विन्ति स्वति वित्र विन्ति विन्ति वित्र विन्ति विन्ति वित्र विन्ति विन्ति वित्र विन्ति विनति विन्ति वि र्द्धर देखा विष्य हेती वटाय सञ्चेय अन्यक्षिया से विया निर्देश देश विया निर्देश के विया स्थिता से स्था से स्थिता से स्थिता से स्थिता से स्थिता से स्थिता से स्थिता से स्था से स्थिता से स्थिता से स्था से स्थ यु ग्राम्बरपहर विमार्भेट्सरे देश बेर पर्नुग्रा बुरायसा। धा के पार्वेर सेर् हेश शे मुकार्भेर पास्त सेट ये सिक् वर्षे भित्रामणुः ह्व वन्द्र के मिल्ना ये निर्धा मार्गित विद्या मार्गित के हिर के हिर के मिल्या मिल्या के हिर । समस्त्रियाकी सट ५ टाय रे के पट मुक्त वर्षेत्र प्रेत्र वर्षम्था हो बना मी व्यापान वर्षेट सार्वेर हे क्रिट । मिनिट्या होन्स ने स्वास्त्र के स यान्यकृतित्य। मिनेनेसुसामधेनमस्यम् नस्यस्य नेमाय्यन्य वर्षेत्र केनेस्य अद्याससाम् स्थाल्या स्थाल्या स्थाल्या स इर-श्रॅट-बेर-ने-वन्दर्भ। मिंअल्ट-टीमट-चभार्श्ववः बन्धाल्ट-दिशन्दः अन्ति-ने-विक्रम। मिंअप्य-वृत्वर्ध्यः ष्याब्दान्द्राखाने मानेशामा कर्दिन त्यामिदाषा या तु कं मानेशामावे वे त्या के मान्द्राधिन मान्द्राय यहें त पर्शेट। गरिमिर्देवर्रेकिरे झेंक २०५७ ईंग। मिंगुक सर्हें पर्शेट हे मिंश गाया प्रदेश परासदा गारदा विकास नलगरेभेकर्नाकेला भेकर्मियां में विश्वामि भेकर्ना सामानिक निर्मा निर्मानिक नि यक् अनुगिर्मिष्मिर्मिर्मिर्मिर स्ति क्षेत्र स्त्रेर सर्वेद्स। सुम् क्रिमे मिर्मिर मिर्मिर मिर्मिर से क्षेत्र विकासि स्तर स्त्र मिर्मिर स लानश्चेनसाने के त्रुटामान नन्त्र। जाससा मानस्ति ने से दास का साम का साम

[No. 5.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

TIBETAN.

LADAKHI DIALECT.

SPECIMEN II.

A PIECE OF LADAKHI FOLK-LORE.

(Rev. S. Ribbach, 1899.)

(LEH, LADAKH.)

Dus chig-la tshong-dpon chhen-mo zhig yod-pin. Kho shi-pa-sang a-ma Time one-at merchant-master greatone dying-from mother was. Пe bu-tsha-la dang nor tshang-ma tshir-la tshar. Rting-la and son-to allproperty succession-in was-finished. Afterwards. song-pa-sang, sring-mo zhig-po ghzhan chang-med-mkhan tshong-dpon zhig-la anything-not-having went-because, sister only other merchant one-to bag-ma khyer-ste yod-pin, a-ma-s, ' da khyod a-chhe rtsar song. wife taken-having 10as, mother-by. " now thou elder-sister near go. Chi-tong-zhig bsam-ma ghtang-yin rag,' zer-s. De-nas kho song. Something give-will thinking perceive,' said. Then hе went. A-chhe-la. 'kho-kun-la nor zin-tog.' tshor-te yod-tshug. Kho Elder-sister-to, 'them-to went.' property heard-having was. Пе a-chhei khang-pa-la sleb-za-na dang, 'nga yong-s-tog, ghyog-po zhig zer. sister-of house-to arriving-in servant one with, ʻI came. say, lon btangs. Ghyog-po-s, 'phru-gu rgan-jar zhig yong-s-to. "ltos." message sent. - Servant-by, ' boy ragged one come-having, zer-dug, zhus-pa-sang a-chhe-la nor med-ches-si rgyus yod-pa-sang, saying-after elder-sister-to property not-being-of knowledge being-from, 'ming-po yin,' bsams-te bra-zan bdun rus-te de bdun-khai • brother thinking buckwheat-dumplings seven kned-having these is.' seven nang-la chhangs-pa-gang re ghser bchug-ste, 'kho nang-la yong-bchug-ste into handful goldput-having, ' him come-made-having insidechi bcho-yin o kha-kye rdzun-btang-ste dang bkal-song. ghyog-po Kho-s what do-will?' scolding pretence-given-having servant with sent. Him-by thu-bai nang-la khur-ste 870 yong-s-te khang-pa-la log-ste song. Lam coat-flap into carrying anger come-having house-tc back went. Road

phed-la. 'i-sang da nga-la re-ste rang rgyal-la thob-vin,' half-in, 'this-from now me-to begged-having even goodbe-got-should. zam-pa zhig-gi yog-la bra-zan tshang-ma bor-te song. Khothought-having bridge one-of under dumplings allputting went. He sleb-s-te a-ma-s, 'a-chhe-s chi btang-s? dris. house-to mother-by, 'elder-sister-by what arrived-having gave?' asked. Kho-s, 'nga nang-la $\mathbf{m}\mathbf{a}$ bsnyen-te ghyog-po zhig dang bra-zan Him-by. 'me insideadmitted-having notservantone with dumplings bdun bkal-ste Khoi, khyong-s.' 'de su-s za-yin, bsams-te zam seven sent-having brought.' Him-by, 'that whom-by eat-will, thinking bridge bor-te yong-s-pin, zer-s. Yang a-ma-s. 'da a-zhang-ngi rtsar under putting came, said.And mother-by, 'now uncle-of near Kho a-zhang-ngi khang-pa-la sleb-za-na a-zhang-ngi-s song,' zer-te btang-s. go,saying sent. He uncle-of house-to arriving-on uncle-bu nan-gla khrid-de khyer-s. Kho-la ya-sha za-ches zhim-po btang-s. bchos-te insidetook. leading Him-to love done-having foodnice gave. De-nas kho-s a-zhang dang a-ne-la skyid-sdug bshad-song. Rting-la, Then him-by unclewithaunt-to joy-woe told. Afterwards. 'da nga khang-pa-la chha-yin kho-s. ju,' zer-pa-sang a-zhang dang a-ne him-by, 'now I house-topray,' saying-from go-willunclewith aunt <u>ch</u>nyis-ka mdzod-la. 'khong a-ma bu-<u>ts</u>ha ghnyis-kai phi-la chi both store-room-to, 'them mothersontwo-of sake-for what ghtang-vin,' grabs bcho-ba-la song. Kai-kha rin-po-chhei ske-chha give-shall,' considerationdo-to went. Pillar-on precious necklace yod-tshug. Kho-kun mdzod-la song-ste kho-s ka-la bltas-pa-sang was. They $store ext{-}room ext{-}to$ gone-having him-by pillar-on looking-after rang-bzhin-la \mathbf{ka} bzhag-te ske-chha nub-ste yang sgrig-song. De-nas pillar itself-of split-having necklace sunk-having again closed. Then 'ske-chha nub-pa-sang rkus-te khyer-pog, bsam-yin,' bsam-s-te 'necklace sinking-from stolen-having he. took-off, think-will, thought-having khrel-te shor-te khang-pa-la song. A-zhang a-ne ghnyis khoi ashamed-being fled-having house-to went. Uncleaunt two his phi-la nor khur-te yong-za-na. kho song-ste med. Da. sake-for goods carrying coming-on, he gone-having was-not-there. Then, 'kho-s chi khur-ste song? blta-za-nakai-kha yod-pai ske-chha what carried-having ' him-by went? seeing-on pillar-on being necklace med mthong-s. 'Phru-gu rtsog-po ske-chha-po khyer-tog, da $\mathbf{m}\mathbf{i}$ stog, not-was ' Boy 8aw. badnecklacecarried-off, now not matters.' zer-s. De-nas kho khang-pa-la bsleb-s-te \mathbf{chi} byung-mkhan bshad-s. said. Then he house-to arrived-having whathappening told. VOL. III, PART I. ĸ 2

68 TIBETAN.

A-ma-s, 'nga-tang-la bsod-de med-pa-sang chang ma nyan,'

Mother-by, 'us-to good-fortune not-being-from anything not is-possible,'
zer-s.

said.

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

Once upon a time there lived a rich merchant. After his death the property of his widow and son gradually dwindled away. The boy had a sister who was married to another merchant. When nothing was left of the property the mother said, 'go now to your elder sister. I think she will give you something.' Then he went there. The elder sister had heard that their property had been lost.

When he had reached his sister's house, he asked some servant to go and say, 'I have come.' The servant went and said, 'a ragged boy has come and asks you to receive him.' The elder sister, who knew that they had no property left, thought that it must be her brother. She made seven dumplings of buckwheat, put a handful of gold into them, and sent them through the servant, under the pretence of scolding, saying, 'what is the use of making him enter?' The boy took the dumplings off in his coat and returned home in an angry mood. Midway he threw the dumplings under a bridge, because he thought that he ought to have got something better.

When he came home, his mother asked, 'what did your sister give you?' He answered, 'she did not receive me into the house, but sent a servant with seven dumplings.' He said, 'I left them under a bridge for whomsoever to eat.' Said the mother, 'now you must go to your uncle,' and sent him off.

When he came to his uncle's house, the uncle took him into the house, treated him well, and gave him nice food. He told his uncle and aunt all his joy and woe. Afterwards, when he said that he must return home, the uncle and aunt went to the store-room in order to consider what they should give mother and son. Now a precious necklace was placed on a pillar, and after they had gone to the store-room he was looking at the pillar, when it burst open of itself. The necklace disappeared, and then the pillar closed again. The boy ran home full of shame thinking, 'since the necklace has disappeared, they will think that I have stolen it.'

When the uncle and aunt returned with some presents for him, then he was gone. They looked around to see whether he had carried off anything and saw that the necklace had disappeared. 'Never mind,' they said, 'the wicked boy has stolen it.'

When he came home he told what had happened, and the mother said, 'we have ill-luck, and therefore nothing goes well.'

LAHUL DIALECT.

Tibetan is spoken in Lahul along the headwaters of the Chandra and Bhaga down to within fifteen miles of their junction, especially about Kolung in the Bhaga Valley and at Koksur in the Chandra Valley.

In Pangi, the portion of Chamba lying beyond the Mid-Himalayan range, Tibetan is, moreover, spoken throughout that mountain portion of the district which lies below the western Himalayas.

No local estimates of the number of speakers have been forwarded from the districts in which this dialect is spoken. At the Census of 1891, the figures were as follows:—

Lahul .														
Chamba	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	307
											To	TAL	•	1,579
														-

No new materials have been forwarded for the purposes of this Survey. The Lahul dialect has, however, been mentioned and partly described by the late Rev. H. A. Jaeschke, and it will therefore be possible to make some few remarks which it is hoped will be sufficient to show how the dialect should be classed.

AUTHORITIES-

JAESCHEE, H. A., — Über die Phonetik der Tibetischen Sprache. Monatsberichte der Königlich Preussischen Akademie der Wissenschaften zu Berlin, 1867, pp. 148 and ff. Contains a short specimen on p. 182.

"—A Tibetan-English Dictionary with special reference to the prevailing dialects. To which is added an English-Tibetan Vocabulary. London, 1881. Contains a list of words in the Lahul dialect on pp. xvi and ff.

The Lahul dialect is a kind of link between Western and Central Tibetan. It does not possess the tones of Central Tibetan. On the other hand, it in many details agrees with the Tibetan of Spiti.

Phonology.—Concurrent vowels are contracted; thus, khai, classical kha-i, of the mouth; $m\bar{e}$, classical me-i, of the fire; $r\bar{\imath}$, classical ri-i, of the hill; khoi, classical kho-i, his; sui, classical su-i, whose?

Single initial consonants are the same as in classical Tibetan, and there are no traces of the strong aspiration of soft consonants which is so pronounced in Spiti.

Final g, and often also final d, are very imperfectly sounded. The result is an abrupt short pronunciation of the preceding vowel, which I have noted by adding the sign'. Thus, tho', classical thog, roof; phu'-ron, classical phug-ron, a pigeon; gon-me', classical mgon-med, helpless. This slurring of a final d does not appear to be a regular feature of the dialect. A similar state of affairs prevails in the dialects of Ü and Tsang.

A final s is changed to i; thus, nai, classical nas, barley; shei, classical shes, know; $r\bar{\imath}$, classical ris, figure; $chh\bar{o}$, classical chhos, religion; $l\bar{u}$, classical lus, body. Be des these we also find Central Tibetan forms such as $n\bar{a}$; $sh\bar{e}$; $chh\bar{o}$; $l\bar{u}$.

TIBETAN.

A final s after a consonant is simply dropped; thus, nag, classical nags, forest; thab, classical thabs, way, manner; nam, classical rnams, many.

Other final consonants are left unchanged.

In compound consonants ending in a subscribed y, the y is dropped before an i, and often also before an e. Labials and y become palatals; in other cases both sounds remain. Thus, phi, classical phyi, behind; be-ma, classical bye-ma, sand; chhag, classical phyag, hand; ja-mo, classical bya-mo, hen; khyod, thou, and so forth.

Hard consonants and r are changed to cerebrals. Thus, tad-pa, classical krad-pa, shoe; thag, classical khrag, blood; don-mo, classical dron-mo, warm; thu-gu, classical phru-gu, child. Occasionally, forms such as dri, classical gri, knife; bra-wo, classical bra-bo, buckwheat, are also heard.

Sr becomes shr; thus, shring-mo, classical sring-mo, sister.

Zl becomes d; thus, da-wa, classical zla-ba, moon.

Db is dropped; thus, ang, classical dbang, might.

An r is sometimes preserved before gutturals; thus, rkang-pa, and kang-pa, foot; rnga and nga, five. Rj becomes zh; $r\underline{ts}$ becomes s; $r\underline{dz}$ becomes z; thus, $zh\bar{e}$, classical rjes, after; sa, classical $r\underline{ts}a$, vein; za-ma, classical $r\underline{dz}a-ma$, a pot.

Sby becomes zh in zhar-wa, classical sbyar-ba, a certain tree.

In most other cases compounds are simplified in such a way that the first component is dropped. Thus, log-pa, classical klog-pa, to read; ta, classical rta, horse; go, classical sgo, door; chig, classical gchig, one; ser, classical gser, gold; dun, classical bdun, seven, and so forth.

Tones are hardly used in the dialect. The abrupt tone indicating the dropping of a final consonant the Lahul dialect shares with the Tibetan of Tsang and Ü. It has not, however, anything to do with the ordinary Tibetan tone system.

Inflexion.—Our information about the inflexion of nouns and verbs is exceedingly scanty. We only know that the usual suffix of the verbal noun is che.

For further details the student is referred to the list of words in Mr. Jacschke's dictionary. A short specimen follows. It has been taken from Mr. Jacschke's paper on the phonological system of Tibetan mentioned under authorities above. The stress has been indicated by putting a above the accented syllable.

[No. 6.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

TIBETAN.

LAHUL DIALECT.

(Rev. H. A. Jaeschke, 1866.)

Dí-ka' Chom-dan-dai nyan-yo'-na dag-gi thoi-pa, dúi-chig-na Śrāvastī-in This-word . me-by the-Exalted-one heard. time-one-in gyal-jé'-kyi zhúg-so. gyal-bu gon-me'-zai-jín-gyi kun-ga-rá-wa-na tshal ·lived. victory-of Anāthapindada's prince woodpleasure-grove-in Deï-<u>ts</u>hé gyál-po Sal-gyál-la lón-po chhén-po khaí-pa dang rig-pa That-time king Prasēnajit-to minister greatgreatknowledge with gyur-nä sém-chan dán-pa zhig yó'-de, deï chhung-ma dang dán-par becoming possessed being, his wife child with to-be onekhyeu tshan dang ia'-zúg ne-iá' dá-me'-pa dan-pa lég-pa child marks good, secondary-marks incomparable with possessed shape-good zhig tsái-te. bu tán-pa-dang tshan-khan-gyi tshan-khan bói-nä, one having-been-born, child showing-on astrologer-by astrologer calling, gá-wai dáng-kyi dí-ka' chē mrái-so. happy look-with this-word said. thus

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

Thus I have heard. The Blessed one was once dwelling at Śrāvastī, in the Jētavana, in Anāthapindada's park. Now at that time king Prasēnajit had a prime minister of great knowledge. His wife became with child, and a son was born who possessed all the lucky marks, great beauty, and all the secondary lucky marks. An astrologer was summoned, and when the child had been shown to him, he said with a happy look as follows.

CENTRAL TIBETAN.

The Tibetan dialects spoken to the east of Lahul and to the west of the Tibetan province of Khams agree in several important points. The most salient feature of these forms of speech is the use of a system of tones which is foreign to the western dialects and to the language of Khams. Compare the remarks in the general introduction to the Tibetan language. Moreover, the dialects in question as a rule agree in simplifying the compound consonants of classical Tibetan. The same is the case with the Tibetan of Lahul, and that dialect can therefore be described as a link between Western Tibetan and our group, which has been described as Central Tibetan. It comprises the central dialect of Tibet, spoken in the provinces of Ü and Tsang, and several smaller dialects spoken in British India, Nepal, Sikkim, and Bhutan.

The various dialects of Central Tibetan agree generally in grammar. The phonetical system is essentially the same. The compound consonants of classical Tibetan have, however, sometimes been simplified in different ways. It will therefore be of interest to compare the phonology of these forms of speech with the written language of classical Tibetan.

CENTRAL DIALECT.

The dialect of Central Tibet is the lingua franca of the Tibetan country, and it is generally understood everywhere in Tibet in addition to the local dialects. Central Tibet comprises the provinces of U and Tsang. Lhasa is situated in the former, and the Lhasa dialect has sometimes been described as the standard form of Tibetan. It is comparatively well known, and it has been dealt with in most of the works mentioned under the head of authorities in the general introduction to the Tibetan language. It is therefore not necessary to give a detailed account of its grammar. It will be sufficient to draw attention to the principal features of phonology, as compared with the classical language of Tibetan literature, and to give a rapid sketch of the grammatical system. A version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son, for which I am indebted to Mr. David MacDonald and Colonel Waddell, will be added.

The home of the Central Tibetan dialect does not fall within the scope of this Survey. Nor are we in a position to judge how many of the six millions of people who are estimated to live in Tibet use that form of the language. On the other hand, it has been brought by immigrants to various parts of India. It has been reported under different names, such as Bhōṭiā, Huniyā, Shalgno, Kazi, Lama, etc. It is probable that some of these denominations cover some slightly different dialect. No great inconvenience can, however, arise from their being shown under the head of Central Tibetan. It should also be borne in mind that several minor forms of speech such as Jad, Nyamkat, Kāgate, Sharpa, Dānjongkā, Lhokā, etc., are closely related to the Tibetan of Lhasa. They will, however, be dealt with separately because they fall more or less within the scope of this Survey, and the figures will therefore be shown under each of them.

According to information collected for the purposes of this Survey, Central Tibetan was spoken in the following districts where it has proved impossible to decide whether the speakers belong to any known sub-dialect:—

	1	District.			Name under which returns	d.	Number of speakers.		
Almora Sikkim " " " " Jalpaigu	· ·		 :	:	Bhōṭiyā or Huniyā Bhōṭiā Bhōṭiā Lama Tibetan Standard Tibetan Lama Kazi Shalgno Bhōṭiā		820 800 1,000 900 400 1,000 900 2,148		
					TOTAL		7,968		

With regard to the corresponding figures returned at the last Census of 1901, the remarks in the general introduction to Tibetan should be consulted.

Pronunciation.—Initial soft consonants are pronounced with a strong aspiration so that the actual sound is almost that of the corresponding hard consonant; thus, *bhu* and *pu*, classical Tibetan *bu*, son. Similarly, an inhabitant of Lhasa would say *shing* instead of classical *zhing*, field, and the only difference made between an initial *sh* corresponding to *zh* in classical Tibetan and an old *sh* is that the former is pronounced with the high tone.

Final g is pronounced as k; thus, chik, classical gchig, one. It is often so indistinctly sounded that it is scarcely perceptible.

Final b is generally pronounced as p; thus, yap, classical yab, father.

Final d, n, s, and sometimes also l, modify a preceding vowel so that a becomes \ddot{a} ; o becomes \ddot{o} , and u becomes \ddot{u} . D and s are, moreover, dropped. When d is dropped the preceding vowel is pronounced in an abrupt short way, in what is generally known as the abrupt tone. When s is dropped the preceding vowel is lengthened. Thus, tham-chä, classical tham-chad, all; $y\ddot{o}$, classical yod, is; $khy\ddot{u}$, classical, 'akhyud, embrace; $g\ddot{a}n$ -pa, classical rgan-pa, elder; $l\ddot{o}n$ -pa, classical lon-pa, to pass; $l\ddot{u}n$, classical lun, all; lun, lun, classical lun, all; lun, lu

Final n followed by p or b sounds as m.

Final s after consonants is dropped and the preceding consonant is treated as if it were a final. Gs is, however, often dropped altogether; thus, $n\bar{a}$, classical nags, forest; $l\bar{e}$ -pa, classical legs-pa, good; $r\bar{\imath}$, classical rigs, class; $l\bar{o}$, classical logs, side; $l\bar{u}$, classical lugs, manner, etc., in Lhasa.

Compound consonants are simplified in various ways. The written language, on the other hand, retains them in accordance with the practice of classical Tibetan.

In such compounds as are written with a sub-joined y this y remains unchanged after gutturals; with labials it coalesces to palatals. Thus, kyang, even; gyur, become; chhir, classical phyir, for the sake of; jhye-pa, che-pa, classical byed-pa, to do.

Compounds of a mute consonant and a subscribed r become cerebrals. Nr, mr, and sometimes also br, remain unchanged; hr is commonly pronounced as shr, and sr as s.

In many cases, however, the subscribed r is simply dropped in U. Compare ta, classical skra, hair; $dh\ddot{o}$ -pa, $t\ddot{o}$ -pa, classical grod-pa, belly; tung-du, classical drung-du, before; $mr\ddot{a}$ -pa, classical smras-pa, said; thugu and phugu, classical phrugu, child:

Zl becomes d; thus, da-wa, classical zla-ba, moon.

Db is dropped; thus, $\ddot{\overline{U}}$, written dbus, name of one of the provinces of Tibet.

Other compounds are simplified in such a way that the first consonant or consonants are dropped. Thus, $gy\ddot{a}$, written brgyad, eight; nga, written lnga, five; chik, written gchig, one; $d\ddot{u}n$, written bdun, seven, etc.

Article.—The numeral chik, one, is often used as an indefinite article. After vowels, except o, and after m, r, or l, chik is often changed to shik. In the modern colloquial, however, chik is common in all connexions.

The demonstrative pronouns di, this, dhe, that, are often used in the colloquial as a definite article; thus, mi-dhe, the man; $t\ddot{a}$ -pa di, the ladder.

Nouns—Gender.—Gender is distinguished in the usual way by means of different words or by adding suffixes or prefixes such as pa, po, etc., male; ma, mo, etc., female; thus, a-pha, father; a-ma, mother: khyo-po, husband; khyo-mo, wife: jha-pa, cock; jha-mo, hen: $y\bar{\imath}-pa$, boy; $mo-y\bar{\imath}$, girl, etc.

Number.—The usual plural suffixes are <u>ts</u>ho, cha or chak, and nam.

Case.—The subject of intransitive verbs and the object are not distinguished by means of suffixes. The dative is formed by adding la; thus, la-ma-la, to a monk. The same form is also used as a locative. The suffix na is used to form another locative. The suffix of the ablative is $n\ddot{a}$, or, sometimes, $l\ddot{a}$. The so-called terminative, which denotes motion towards and which is formed by adding one of the suffixes du, tu, su, ru, and r, is not in use in the colloquial.

The genitive is formed by adding gi after final k and ng; i or yi after vowels, and kyi in all other cases. The case of the agent is formed by lengthening the final i of the genitive; thus, rang-gi, self of, own; nga-i, my; khye-kyi, your; yap-kyi, by the father. It will be seen that old finals such as the silent d of khyed, you, is considered as extant and that hence the termination kyi is employed, although the final is no longer heard in pronunciation.

In words ending in a vowel the case of the agent is also formed by lengthening and modifying the vowel as if an s had been dropped; thus, $la-m\ddot{a}$ or $la-ma-y\bar{\imath}$, by a Lama.

Adjectives.—Adjectives almost always follow the noun they qualify. In classical Tibetan they often precede it, being then placed in the genitive, and the same can also be the case in the colloquial. The suffix $l\ddot{a}$ of the ablative is used as a particle of comparison; thus, mi-dhe- $l\ddot{a}$ mi di $ng\ddot{a}n$ -pa-re, man-that-from man this bad-is, this man is worse than that man.

Pronouns.—The following are the personal pronouns:—

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nga, I.

nga-yī, ngä, by me.

khyö, khye, thou.

kho, honorific khong, he.

khyö-kyī, by thee.

kho-yī, khö, by him.

khoi, his.
```

The plural is formed by adding the usual suffixes. Before $\underline{ts}ho$ an n is often inserted, so that we hear $ngan-\underline{ts}ho$, we; $khyen-\underline{ts}ho$, you; $khon-\underline{ts}ho$, they, etc.

Rang, self, can be added to all the personal pronouns; thus, nga-rang-ghi, my own.

Other pronouns are dak, kho-wo, nga-tsok, I; nyi-rang, nyi-chak, thou; nge-tsho, we; kho-wa, dhe-dak, they; mo, she; di, this; dhe, that; di-ka, this one; dhe-ga, that one; ha-gi, that just yonder; pha-gi, that far off; ya-gi, that up there; ma-gi, this down below; su, who? ghang, which? what? gha-re, what? chi, what? and so forth.

Verbs.—Several bases are used as a verb substantive. The most common ones are yin-pa, re-pa, $y\hat{o}-pa$, and duk-pa or du-pa. Polite forms are $chh\bar{i}-pa$ and $l\bar{a}-pa$ or lak-pa. Yin-pa and re-pa are the simple copula; $y\ddot{o}-pa$ and du-pa mean 'to be', 'to exist.' An intensive verb substantive is $m\ddot{o}-pa$, to be indeed. The negative copula is min-pa, and the negative of $y\ddot{o}-pa$ is me-pa.

With regard to finite verbs it should be remarked that the modern colloquial in most cases uses the perfect base of the literary dialect in all tenses.

The o which is added to the verb in classical Tibetan is commonly dropped in the colloquial.

Present time.—The base alone is used as a present tense; thus, kho-rang-ghī shambhu ghön, he wears a cap. The most common present is, however, formed by adding yö or du to the participle ending in ghi (classical gin). Ghi yö is almost exclusively used in the third person. Ghi can also be followed by yin and re, and the present ending in ghi-re is very common in Eastern Tibet. Compare nga-rang-ghī dung-ghi-yö, I strike; khyö-rang-ghī dung-ghi-du, thou strikest. Periphrastic presents are formed by adding the verb substantive to gang preceded by the genitive of the verbal noun ending in pa, wa, or to kap preceded by the base; thus, nga do-wai gang-yin, I am just going; dithi-kap-yö, I am just bringing it.

Past time.—A common past tense is formed by adding song, or, in the case of many verbs, jhung; thus, shi-song, died; thong-jhung, saw. Such forms do not appear to be used in the first person.

A common past tense is also formed from the participle or verbal noun ending in pa, wa, by adding yin in the first person and dn or re in the second and third. Thus, $ch\ddot{a}$ -pa-yin, I did; thop-pa-du, he got.

Yö and du can also be added to the base; thus, dz ang-du, he was sent. The base alone is also employed; thus, nang, gave.

Compound forms such as $dul-n\ddot{a}y\ddot{o}$, having walked am, I have walked; **kho-pa to-** $s\ddot{a}-\underline{ts}har-du$, they have finished eating, etc., are of course often used.

Future.—The present is commonly used as a future; thus, $ng\ddot{a}$ dung-ghi-yin, I shall beat. Common suffixes are yong and gyu-yin, $gyu-y\ddot{o}$, etc.; thus, shu-yong, I shall say; nang-la do-gyu-yin, I will go home.

Imperative.—The base alone is used as an imperative. The imperative base of the classical dialect is often preserved; thus, do-wa, to go; song, go: yong-wa, to come; shok, come: khyak-pa, to carry; khyok, carry: tak-pa, to tie; tok, tie, etc.

Common suffixes are chik or shik, tang, and the more polite ro, ro-chik, or roch, ro-nang, ro-dzö, nang-chi, etc. Thus, nong-shik, give; lam di ten-ro-dzö, please show the way. Ro is the classical grogs, help. The literal meaning of the last example is accordingly 'way this show-help-make.'

Verbal nouns and participles.—The various tenses are in reality verbal nouns. The most common verbal noun is, however, formed by adding pa or, if the base in classical Tibetan ends in a vowel or in r and l, wa; thus, jhye-pa, to do; do-wa, to go. Such forms are often used as finite tenses; thus, sht-pa, he said. In connexion with case suffixes and postpositions they are used in order to form various kinds of adverbial clauses, infinitives, etc.; thus, ser-war, saying-for, in order to say; nyē-pa chā-pā, sin doing-by, because I have sinned. They are moreover used as verbal and relative participles. In this sense another form ending in khān is, however, also used. When the participle ending in pa or wa precedes a qualified noun it is put in the genitive; thus, ngā thop-pai nor-kāl, me-by getting-of property-share, the share of the property which I shall get; mi-po nga-la dung-khān dhe, man me-to striking that, the man who struck me. The participle is also used when the interrogative pronoun is applied as a kind of relative; thus, nga-la gang yō-pa tham-chā khyō rang-ghi yin, me-to what being, all thine is.

A verbal noun, which is commonly used as an infinitive of purpose, is formed by adding gyu; thus, sa-gyu, to eat.

Conjunctive participles are formed by adding case suffixes to the base or by means of special suffixes such as de and te, ching and shing; thus, gang-la ser-na, 'why?' saying-in, if you ask why, because; lang-nä, arising-from, having arisen; song-te, having gone; cho-ching, doing; sa-shing, eating, etc.

Negative particle.—The negative particle is a prefixed mi or ma. In compound forms it precedes the last part of the compound. Mi is used with the present and future tenses; ma with the past tenses and the imperative; thus, mi $\bar{o}so$, I am not worthy; sa-mi-yong, I shall not eat; khye- $ky\bar{\imath}$ ma nang, you did not give; ma shok, don't come. It should be noted that the simple base is often used in the negative imperative even when the positive imperative differs; thus, ma yong, not ma shok, don't come.

Interrogative particle.—The interrogative particle is am, or usually simply a, before which a final consonant is doubled; thus, lep-jhung-nga, has he arrived?

For further details the student is referred to the works mentioned under the head of authorities in the general introduction to the Tibetan language and to the version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son which follows. The latter is given in Tibetan characters and in transliteration. The Tibetan text represents the literary language, and not the colloquial speech of the people. It is written in the usual way, so that the spelling of the single words agrees with the form they assume in classical Tibetan. The transliterated text printed in ordinary type is a literal rendering of the Tibetan character. A second transliteration has been added in italics. It is a phonetical rendering of the text as pronounced by Lhasa people.

A list of Standard Words and Phrases, based on the hand-books of Messrs. Sandberg and Henderson, will be found on pp. 140 and ff.

[No. 7.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

TIBETAN.

CENTRAL DIALECT.

(Mr. David MacDonald and Colonel Waddell, 1899.)

(STATE SIKKIM.)

भ्र. हिमाला ये. मोर्डुश क्र्रियार्ड्स। ट्रेन्स लश क्रिया देश रहामी सला हिशामा हर्दे. लयः दशः व्रेचःसदेः ब्रेच्ःभ्रयः दायः मोर्बेदः हिमा मिंहाः रदःमी ब्रेचः हे नमाया वर्माहाःहा। हे दशः खेमी. भट.ट्रा. भ. जूब.तर. यी. कट.तमा. बुरू. सममान्द्र. पर्झेश.वंश. लीपा. धर्मा.ट्रट. खुमी.टें. बुरू. क्री. च्रांता परेटा क्रांता रेटा लीला रे.ला शिमी. क्रिसेत् ब्रिमी. चिंटायश प्रि. ब्रेसीशतर प्रीये. ह्रां मिं श्राम्प्रा श्राया नेते. में में श्रे विना नमा तम्मिनायय प्रमान नमान हैं हैं विमा चित्रा चन्द्रा देर क्रि. व्यायश अवद्र मदावुश गुर रहामी मेरिया दमूर द देर्र गुर गुर थ्र. शिक्ष. मिट. मिट्य. भ. क्रेन.मू.। ने.वका. मि. नेब.श्रूकत्तर. पर्नीन.ने. बुन.ता.। टपु. लय.मी. मी.ता. भटारी रेप्नाथ ववरार्ची लूरेत शवर हे घर वर्षी लट लूरेजी ट्यू ४रूर कुंचिशतश कु:मूर्या दे. र. प्रत्यावेश लय.मी. वैरारी श्रुरा है। मूर्या बे जूरा। रपुं. लय. रश. वेशासीयपं. रेट. اللَّهُ عَلَى اللَّهُ اللَّ म्राया लेगा नद्रा पर्या अर्दिन हेगा। देवसा मिं सदसाने रदामी स्पराणी द्वारा र्रोक मिट. प्र. र.१८८. धनान्द्राम, लूर्नापु, कु. प्र. लय.ग्रेश प्र. अधूर.हे. हेट.पड्ड.थ्य. चर्चैनाय.तुट. हुन, भर्मीयार्थका पर्विर्ट्र, मूर्ण, मित्रक्षिण जूर्। हुन्था ब्रिश मूर्एरा बिकाता। एतु. लय. एका क्या भ्रापत. रेट. छिरे.ग्री. शैंश.र्डर. केश.रा. **वेश**.राश. रे. हुंबे करे. ट. छिरे.ग्री. वी. ड्रेस.रास. क्र. पूर्थ. र्से । देवे गोर लयगोस मेल्यांत्र क्षराय महारहाया रम्ब्र गीवितरा यार्त् ४५४. मिर कुर्मा, प्रिया मेलूमेश कुर्मा, जनाराजा शूर मरिया मोक्सा, मीश मिर ताजा, झेंब कुर्मा। देवस एक अविर भुराये गुरारे माराया बेरान एते स परे पीनस क्षेत्र मार्सेसाया येन क्रूर वर्षा मक्रेर य क्रुका रेक्स रेन्स क्रुर ये छेर याया जिसका ।।

स. लूच, ड्रॅ.स.चं. चंड्रेट्स. छूच्या १.ट्र. हुट्ट्स्स. लूच्या १.ट्र. हुट्ट्स. चुंड्र.स. लूच्या १८८ चुंट्स. चंड्र.स. छूच्या १८८ चुंट्स. चंड्र.स. चुंच्या १८८ चुंट्स. चंड्र.स. चंड्र.स. चंट्स. चंट्स.च्या चंटस.च्या चंटस.च्या

[No. 7.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

TIBETAN.

CENTRAL DIALECT.

(Mr. David MacDonald and Colonel Waddell, 1899.)

(STATE SIKKIM.)

TRANSLITERATION AND TRANSLATION.

Mi zhig- <i>Mi shik-</i> Man one-	·la pu nyī	yod-pa-red. yö-pa-re. were.	$egin{aligned} \mathbf{De} ext{-}\mathbf{dag} ext{-} \ & \mathbf{Them} ext{-}\mathbf{fro} \end{aligned}$	·Iā chhun	y·wx tē	rang-gi rang-gi own
pha-la zhus- pha-la shü- father-to said	pa, 'nga-i	yab, ngas yap , $ng\ddot{a}$ father, me-by	thob-pa-i thop-pa-i receiving-of	nor-skal nor-kal property-share		ong-zhig.' ong-shik.'
Khos rang-gi Khō rang-ga Him-by own		·la gö-sö.	De-nas <i>Te-nā</i> Th _i t-after	shak mar	ng-po ma ng-po ma nany not	lon-par lön·par p.ssing-on
bu chhung- pu chhung- son younger	-เงสี nor	thams-chad tham-chā all	bsdus-nas <i>dü-nä</i> gathered-havin	yul	thag-ring thak-ring far	zhig-tu shik-tu one-to
song-ba-dang song-voa-tang going-when	der spyod-pa ter chö-pa there behaviour	ngän-pa	oyed-ching che-ching doing		ng-ma ch	ud-zos-la hü-zö-la wasting-in
btang-ngo. tang-ngo. gave.	$egin{array}{ll} egin{array}{ll} egi$			hud-zos-la hhü-zö-la wasting-in	btang- <u>ts</u> ha tang- <u>ts</u> har giving-finis	-wa-tang
yul de-la yul te-la country that-in	mu-ge chhem mu-ge chhem famine big		rung-bas kh hung-wä kh arising he	o tok-par	gyur-rō.	
song-nas yo song-nä yo gone-having cour	ul te-i to	ong-mi zhig ng-mi shik illager one	tang	grogs-nas <i>tok-nä</i> ociated-having	bsdad-pa-da dä-pa-tan staying-when	g tē
kho phag-pakho phak-pakho swine	n <u>ts</u> ho-ru s	hing-kha-la hing-kha-la field-direction-to	btang-ngo. tang-ngo. sent.	$egin{array}{ccc} { m Der} & { m kh} \ { m There} & { m he} \end{array}$	o phak-pä	8a-10a · i
gang-bü k	yang rang-gi yang rang-gi even own	grod-pa, ' tö-pa belly	'agrang-bar <i>ḍang-war</i> fill-to	$d\ddot{o}$ ky	vang, mi ven, man	sus-kyang sü-kyang any-by

him-to not gave. Thereafter he memory restoring-to become-having said, 'respective of the said of the	n <i>ä</i> ving cha
him-to not gave. Thereafter he memory restoring-to become-having said, 'ryab-kyi gla-pa mang-po de-dag-la bza-rgyu yod-pa ma-zad-de, plyap-kyi la-pa mang-po te-dak-la sā-gyu yö-pa ma-zā-de, profather-of hirelings many them-to eating-for is not-only, as zag-rgyu yang yod-kyi nga-ni 'adir ltogs-pas chhi-bo. Da nga langs-zak-gyu yang yö-kyi nga-ni dir tok-pā chhi-wo. Ta nga langs-laying-for also being I here hunger-by die. Now I arisen-ha yab-kyi drung-du song-ste khong-la zhu-yong, "nga-i yab, ngas nam-mlyap-kyi tung-du song-te khong-la shu-yong, "nga-i yap, ngā nam-khi father-of presence-to grips like the said.	ny nar har side nas nä ving
yab-kyi gla-pa mang-po de-dag-la bza-rgyu yod-pa ma-zad-de, pl yap-kyi la-pa mang-po te-dak-la sā-gyu yö-pa ma-zä-de, pl father-of hirelings many them-to eating-for is not-only, au zag-rgyu yang yod-kyi nga-ni 'adir ltogs-pas chhi-bo. Da nga langs- zak-gyu yang yö-kyi nga-ni dir tok-pä chhi-wo. Ta nga langs- laying-for also being I here hunger-by die. Now I arisen-ha yab-kyi drung-du song-ste khong-la zhu-yong, "nga-i yab, ngas nam-ml yap-kyi tung-du song-te khong-la shu-yong, "nga-i yap, ngā nam-k) father-of presence-to grippe die nam-k)	har har side nas nä ving kha
yap-kyi la-pa mang-po te-dak-la sā-gyu yö-pa ma-zā-de, profesther-of hirelings many them-to eating-for is not-only, and zag-rgyu yang yod-kyi nga-ni 'adir ltogs-pas chhi-bo. Da nga langs-zak-gyu yang yö-kyi nga-ni dir tok-pā chhi-wo. Ta nga langs-laying-for also being I here hunger-by die. Now I arisen-ha yap-kyi drung-du song-ste khong-la zhu-yong, "nga-i yab, ngas nam-mi yap-kyi tung-du song-te khong-la shu-yong, "nga-i yap, ngā nam-ki father-of presence-to grips link-la shu-yong, "nga-i yap, ngā nam-ki father-of presence-to grips link-la shu-yong, "nga-i yap, ngā nam-ki father-of presence-to grips link-la shu-yong, "nga-i yap, ngā nam-ki father-of presence-to grips link-la shu-yong, "nga-i yap, ngā nam-ki father-of presence-to grips link-la shu-yong, "nga-i yap, ngā nam-ki shu-yong presence-to grips link-la shu-yong, "nga-i yap, ngā nam-ki shu-yong presence-to grips link-la shu-yong, "nga-i yap, ngā nam-ki shu-yong presence-to grips link-la shu-yong, "nga-i yap, ngā nam-ki shu-yong presence-to grips link-la shu-yong, "nga-i yap, ngā nam-ki shu-yong presence-to grips link-la shu-yon	har pide nas nä ving sha
father-of hirelings many them-to eating-for is not-only, as zag-rgyu yang yod-kyi nga-ni 'adir ltogs-pas chhi-bo. Da nga langs-zak-gyu yang yö-kyi nga-ni dir tok-pä chhi-wo. Ta nga langs-laying-for also being I here hunger-by die. Now I arisen-ha yab-kyi drung-du song-ste khong-la zhu-yong, "nga-i yab, ngas nam-mk yap-kyi tung-du song-te khong-la shu-yong, "nga-i yap, ngä nam-k) father-of presence-to grippe die.	nas n <i>ä</i> ving
zag-rgyu yang yod-kyi nga-ni 'adir ltogs-pas chhi-bo. Da nga langs- zak-gyu yang yö-kyi nga-ni dir tok-pä chhi-wo. Ta nga lang- laying-for also being I here hunger-by die. Now I arisen-ha yab-kyi drung-du song-ste khong-la zhu-yong, "nga-i yab, ngas nam-ml yap-kyi tung-du song-te khong-la shu-yong, "nga-i yap, ngä nam-kh father-of presence-to gripped die.	nas n <i>ä</i> ving cha
zak-gyu yang yö-kyi nga-ni dir tok-pä chhi-wo. Ta nga lang-s laying-for also being I here hunger-by die. Now I arisen-ha yab-kyi drung-du song-ste khong-la zhu-yong, "nga-i yab, ngas nam-mk yap-kyi tung-du song-te khong-la shu-yong, "nga-i yap, ngä nam-kh	n <i>ä</i> ving cha
yab-kyi drung-du song-ste khong-la zhu-yong, "nga-i yab, ngas nam-mk yap-kyi tung-du song-te khong-la shu-yong, "nga-i yap, ngä nam-kk father-of presence-to gring khong-la shu-yong, "nga-i yap, ngä nam-kk	ving kha
yab-kyi drung-du song-ste khong-la zhu-yong, "nga-i yab, ngas nam-mk yap-kyi tung-du song-te khong-la shu-yong, "nga-i yap, ngā nam-kh	cha,
yap-kys tung-du song-te khong-la shu-yong, "nga-i yap, ngā nam-kh	
isther-of presence-to coins 1.	
heaven	
dang khyed-kyi drung-du nyes-pa byas-pa-vin. Da-phyin-chhad	
tang khye-kyi tung-du nyē-na chā-na-nin	iga.
and you-of presence-in sin did. Henceforward	ga I
khyed-kyi bu zer-bar mi os-pas nga khyed-kyi gla-na ghio da	
KNYE-KYL PU Ser-war mi Ö-nä maa 1-11	ng
your son saying-for not worthy-being I your servant one	ng
'adra-bar mdzod-chig''' De-nas I-ba I-man	
da-war dzö-chik.", To-mä liho 7t	
like-to-be make." Thereafter he arisen-having own father-af	
song-ngo. On-kyang kho da-rung thog ying la	
song-ngo. On-kyang kho ta-nyag thah ming t	
went. But he still distance at heingref	
yau-kyis kho mthong-ste snying-brtse-nas brgviigs-shing doi	
yap-kyī kho thong-te nying-tse-nä anak-aking	
father-by him seen-having pitied-having running his	
'akhyud-de kho-la kha-bskyal-lo. De-nas bus khong-la character	
khyü-de kho-la kha-kyäl-lö Tam# n# 17	
embraced-having him-to kissed. Thereafter son-by him-to	
yab, ngas nam-mkha dang khyed-kyi snyan-sngar ngas	
yap, ngā nam-khā tang blue h	1.S
father, me-by heaven and you-of everight-in	
UM-DUVIN-Chhod nee l-b-olimit v	
ta-chhin-chhä mag till yang yang yang yang yang yang yang yang	
henceforth I your son saving for not	
gyog-po-rnams-la gsungs-pa, 'da gos kun-las bzang-po 'adir kharraka	
gon-po-nam-ta sung-wa, ta gö kün-lä zang-no din bland	
servants-to said, 'now cloth all-from good here hairs)
17. 7 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1.	_
kho-ta yok-shik; lak-pa-la sor-dup chik cuit ham yang	-
nand-on ring one put, feet-on shoes	7
skon-chig. De-nas nga-tsho za-zhing skvid-no brod de "C	,
Non-Chik. Ie-nd non-teho on line	5
pat. Then we eating merry make. "Kang-la?"	

yin.' 'adi shi-nas, brnyed-pa zer-na, nga-i bu slar gsos-pa-yin; stor-nas, yin.' dishi-nä. lar sö-pa-yin; tor-nä. nye-pa naa-i puser-na. is.' this died-having, alive-is; lost-having-been, found saying-in, my son again de-dag skyid-po byed-pa-la zhugs-so. De-nas Te-nä te-dak kyi-po che-pa-la shuk- $s\bar{o}$. Then thev merry make-to began.

tshe zhing-kha-la yod-pa-yin. Kho Dei khong-gi bu rgan-pa Kho shing-kha-la yö-pa-yin. Te-itshe khong-gi gän-pa puHe That-of time his son elder field-in was. nye-bar sgra-snyan log-yongs-nas khang-pa dang bslebs-<u>ts</u>a-na gtong-ba dang tang lep-tsa-na da-nyän tong-wa tang lok-yong-na khang-pa nye-war sounding and back-come-having house to nearness-into . . . arriving-on harp Khos 'de-i donthos-so. zhig bos-nas. gang gar-byed-pa gyog-po Rhố hö-nä. 'te-i tön thö-so. shikkang kar-che-pa yok-po heard. 'that-of meaning what dancing Him-by servant one called-having, vin?' 'adris-pa-dang khos 'khyod-kyi nu-bo log-bslebs-song. zer-pa, $kh\ddot{o}$ 'khyö-kyi lok-lep-song. uin?' ti-pa-tang ser-wa. nu-wo is P ' back-arrived. asking-when him-by said. 'your younger-brother 'abyor-ba-i btang-ba-vin.' kho khams-bde-bar phyir mgron zhig Yab-kyis dön kham-de-war chhir shiktang-wa-yin.' Yap-kyī khojhor-wa-i health-good-in gave.' Father-by him finding-of sake-for feast one pha 'agro-bar dga-o. Dei phyir khros-nas nang-du ma Der kho chhir t hö-nä nang-du do-war $m\alpha$ gā-o. Te-i pha Ter kho inside wished. That-of sake-for father going-for not angry-having-become Then he shog-chig,' smras-pa-dang tshig snyan-pos, 'nang-la phyi-rol-tu ongs-nas sho-chik,' mrā-pa-tang 'nang-la tshiknyän-pö, ong-nä chhi-rol-tu 'inside go,' saying-on outside words pleasant-with, come-having 'gzigs-chig, mang-po 'adi-tsam-kyi bar-du lo zhus-pa, ngas khos pha-la par-du pha-la 'zī-chik, ngä lo mang-po di-tsam-kyi shü-pa, khö till this-much-of many said. ·lo, me-bv years him-by father-to 'agal-bar nam-yang ma bka-las byas-te khyed-kyi khyed-kyi gyog gal-war kā-lä chä-te nam-yang ma yokkhye-kyi khye-kyi transgressing for ever-even not done-having word-from your work your byed-pa-i khyed-kyis dang skyid-po phyir nga-i grogs-po-mams byed kyang, chhir khye-kyi che-pa-i tang kyi-po tok-po-nam nga-ikyang, che making-of sake-for you-by friends with merry my even, did khyod-kyi bu chhung-ba On-kyang kyang gnang. zhig ma ra-gu nga-la khyö-kyi chhung-wa On-kyana puma nang. shikkyang ra-gu nga-la younger son But your even not gave. one me-to log-yongs-pa dang khyed-kyi nor zos-nas smad-'atshong-ma-rnams 'adi zö-nä lok-yong-pa khye-kyi mä-<u>ts</u>hong-ma-nam tang 209 diyour eaten-having back-coming with property harlots this zhig btang-ngo.' \mathbf{Der} yab-kyis de-la mgron khyed-kyis tsam-gyis Dēr shiktang-ngō.' yap-kyī dön khye-kyī te-la tsam-gyī Then father-by gave. him-to least a you-by 88-800R-85

kho-la kho-la him-to	gsungs-pa sung-wa,	, 'bu, ' <i>pu</i> , 'son,	kh y od-: <i>khyö-n</i> you		s-rgyun-du i- <i>gyün-du</i> always	nga nga		ng	mnyam-du nyam-du together
sdod-pas dö-pä being	nga-la k	gang yod-] khang yö-p what being	a tha	ns-chad <i>m-chä</i>	khyod-rang- khyö-rang- yours		yin. <i>yin</i> . is.	Da Ta Now	khyod-kyi khyö-kyi your
nu-bo nu-wo younger-brot nga- <u>ts</u> ho nga- <u>ts</u> ho we	di	shi-nas, shi-nä, died-baving, byed-par che-par making-tor	lar again os-pa	gsos-pa- sō-pa-y slive-is yin.' yin.'	in; tor-1	ıä,	brny ny e	ed-pa ?-pa	yin-pas, yin-pä, being,

SPITI DIALECT.

The district of Spiti consists of the valleys of the Spiti and Pin Rivers and of a glacier region belonging to the western Himalaya system. It stretches southwards like a wedge between Lahul in the north-west and Kanawar in the south-east. The prevailing language over the whole of the district is Tibetan.

The number of speakers has been estimated for the purposes of this Survey at 3,548.

A list of Standard Words and Phrases in the Spiti dialect has been forwarded from Kangra. I have corrected it after the list of Spiti words printed in Mr. Jaeschke's Tibetan Dictionary. The list and the dictionary are the only sources of the remarks on the grammar of the Spiti dialect which follow.

AUTHORITY-

JÄSCHKE, H. A.,—A Tibetan-English Dictionary with special reference to the prevailing dialects. To which is added an English-Tibetan Vocabulary. London, 1881, pp. xvi and ff.

The Spiti dialect is a form of Central Tibetan. In several forms it agrees with Ladakhī and connected forms of speech. In the most characteristic feature, however, viz., in the use of tones, it marches with Central Tibetan.

Phonology.—The vowels are the same as in classical Tibetan. A-i is pronounced as \ddot{a} ; thus, a- $ph\ddot{a}$, of the father; de- $n\ddot{a}$, from there. It is of no consequence for this change whether the i is original or has been derived from an s. In oi, on the other hand, o and i are pronounced distinctly; thus, khoi, his.

Initial soft consonants which are not preceded by a prefix in classical Tibetan, are pronounced with a strong aspiration. In the list of words, however, the aspiration has not been marked. Thus, ghang, classical gang, which? dhud-pa, classical dud-pa, smoke; bhu-mo, classical bu-mo, daughter, and so forth. Such words are pronounced in the deep tone. The same is the case with words beginning with z and zh, which sounds have been changed to s and sh respectively. Thus, san, classical zan, food; shag, classical zhag, day.

Final g and d are left unchanged; thus, chig, one; dug, six; mig, eye; gyad, eight; khyod, thou, and so forth. There is, however, a tendency to drop them in certain positions. Thus, ba-ma, classical bag-ma, bride; khyoi and khyod-ki, classical khyod-kyis, by thee, and so forth.

Final s is changed to i, or, if preceded by a consonant, dropped. Thus, $r\bar{i}$, classical ris, quarter; chi shē, classical chi shes, who knows? perhaps; dhui, classical dus, season, time; $gh\bar{o}$, classical gos, cloth; $n\bar{a}$, classical nas, from; nam, classical rnams, many, and so forth. Gs is, however, sometimes retained, and bs becomes u; thus, ra-rigs-nam, goats; chhiu, classical chhibs, horse; $sh\bar{u}$, classical shubs, case, and so forth.

B between vowels is usually pronounced as w; thus, sa-wa, classical za-ba, to eat; shi-wa, classical shi-ba, to die. Compare, however, chha-a, going; kho-ba, they.

Compound consonants are simplified in various ways. Gutturals before y are retained, but the following y is dropped if it precedes an i; thus, ghyon-pa, classical gyon-pa, to put on, to wear; ki and gi, the suffix of the genitive; khi, classical khyi, dog. Compare, however, chhong-ba, classical a-khyong-ba, to bring.

Labials and y become palatals. Thus, chhed, classical phyed, half; ja, classical bya, bird.

An r coalesces with a preceding letter to a cerebral; thus, tad-pa, classical krad-pa, leather; thon-pa, classical khron-pa, a spring; dhi, classical gri, knife; dhon-mo, classical dron-mo, warm; thu-ghu, classical phru-gu, child. Sr becomes shr; thus, shring-mo, sister.

Zl becomes d in da-wa, classical zla-ba, moon.

In other cases the first component of compound consonants is dropped. Thus, ba-lang, classical ba-glang, cow; kang-pa, classical rkang-pa, foot; ta, classical rla, horse; dzi-o, classical rdzi-bo, a shepherd; che, classical lche, tongue; kar-ma, classical skar-ma, star; dod, classical sdod, sit; na, classical sna, nose; Pi-ti, classical Spi-ti, name of a district; chig, classical gchig, one; ser, classical gser, gold; kar-po, classical dkar-po, white; ngul, classical dngul, silver; chu, classical bchu, ten; shi, classical bzhi, four; go, classical mgo, head; dun-nä, classical mdun-nas, before, and so forth.

Note also sha and ta, classical skra, hair; teu, classical spreu, monkey; dang-bu, classical sbrang-bu, fly; chod-ba, classical spyod-pa, to do; zhar-wa, classical sbyar-ba, name of a tree; nyon-pa, classical smyon-pa, insane; ug, classical dbugs, breath, and so forth.

Tones and accents are the same as in the Central Dialect. The difference between low-toned aspirates derived from old uncompound soft consonants and high-toned aspirates derived from old soft consonants with a prefix, is more marked than in other dialects.

Inflexional system.—The inflexional system in most characteristics agrees with classical Tibetan. I shall only draw attention to some few features in which it differs.

The prefix a is used in words such as a-pha, father; a-ma, mother; a-cho, brother; a-khu, uncle, and so forth.

The particle of comparison is sang as in Ladakhī; thus, khoi a-cho khoi a-chi sang thon-po dug, his brother is taller than his sister.

The pronoun nga, I, is apparently nasalized; thus, $ng\tilde{a}$, I; $ng\tilde{a}$, my. The plural is nga-zha, or, perhaps, nga-sha. Compare Ladakhī. 'Thou' is khyud, or khyo, genitive khyoi and khyod-ki, plural khyo-zha. Note also kho-ba, they. The actual pronunciation of the latter word is perhaps kho-wa.

With regard to verbs we may note that, according to the list of words, there seems to be a tendency to distinguish the first from the second and third persons. It is, however, not possible to state whether this is really a feature of the spoken dialect.

The verb substantive is formed from the bases yin, yod, and dug; past yoddin or dugpin.

The first person of the present tense is, according to the list, formed by adding yod, am, to a participle ending in a, before which a final consonant is doubled. Thus, chha-a yod, I go; yyab-ba yod, I strike. The same form is, however, also used in the third person; thus, dad-da yod, he lives.

The second and third persons are formed by adding dug, or, after vowels, rug, to the base; thus, gyah-dug, strikest; <u>ts</u>ho-rug, he is grazing.

In the past tense we find forms such as gyab-ban, I struck, he struck; gyab-song, thou struckest; song-ban, went.

The future is formed by adding in, i.e. yin, as in Ladakhī; thus, gyab-in, will strike-Yin-do, shall be, literally means 'I may be,' as in Ladakhī.

In the imperative we may note forms such as len-tong, take; ching-tong, bind, and so forth.

The usual verbal noun is formed as in Ladakhi. Thus, chha-che, to be; gyab-che, to beat. Note also the participle song-khan, gone; compare Purik and Ladakhi.

The preceding remarks are far from being exhaustive. It is, however, hoped that they are sufficient to show how the Spiti dialect must be classified.

A list of Standard Words and Phrases will be found on pp. 142 and ff. below.

NYAMKAT.

A Tibetan dialect is spoken along the upper course of the Satlej in Kanawar. The number of speakers has been estimated for the purposes of this Survey at 1,544. The name of the dialect is Nyamkat.

Nyam-kat, classical mnyam-skad, means 'the Nyam speech,' lit. 'the language of the equals.' The dialect is also known under other names such as Bad-kat, i.e., Bod-skad, Tibetan; Sanyyas, i.e., probably sangs-ryyas, the (dialect of the) Buddhists. The speakers are sometimes also called Jad as in Tehri Garhwal.

Nyamkat is closely related to Spiti and Jad. There are apparently very few traces of an influence exercised by Kanāw^arī. I may mention the form *ke-song*, he gave to us; compare *tang-song*, he gave to them.

A version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son in the Nyamkat dialect will be printed below. It has been forwarded in Dēvanāgarī and transliteration. I have only printed the latter text. The original does not distinguish between ch and \underline{ts} , j and \underline{dz} , chh and \underline{tsh} , j, z, and zh, respectively. I have, however, distinguished between those various sounds as in the Tibetan of Spiti and Garhwal.

Phonology.—The phonetical system is in most characteristics the same as in Spiti and Tehri Garhwal.

A strong aspiration of soft consonants can be inferred from spellings such as de-ne and te-ne, then; shang, classical zhag, day; za-ja, to eat, but soi-ne, eating, and so forth. Final soft consonants are hardened; thus, thak-ring, far; dot-pa, belly; thop, to be found.

A final s is dropped, and a preceding vowel is lengthened; thus, $khang-zhing-n\bar{a}$, from the property; $n\bar{i}$, i.e., probably $ny\bar{i}$, classical gnyis, two; $d\bar{u}$, classical dus, season; $g\bar{o}$, classical dgos, it is necessary; tuk, classical btugs, kissed. In some cases, however, s is changed to i as in Spiti. Compare soi-ne, classical zos-nas, having eaten; goi-pe, classical bgos-pai, dividing.

The suffix pa, ba takes the form wa after vowels, ng, r, and probably also after l; thus, shi-sha-wa, died; song-wa, went; zer-wa, said. Instead of wa we sometimes find a; thus, diya, asked; yong-a, came. $L\bar{a}$ -po, a servant, therefore corresponds to Tibetan las-pa, and not to gla-bo.

Double consonants are simplified in the usual way.

By becomes ch; thus, chuk, classical byugs, he patted. Y is dropped after consonants before e and i; thus, kher, classical 'akhyer, bring; phit-ka, classical phyed-ka, half; phi-ka, classical phyi-la, after. In other cases y is retained after gutturals; thus, gyuk, classical rgyuk, run.

Compound consonants containing an r as the last component are changed to cerebrals. Thus, dang-wa, classical 'agrang-ba, to satisfy; di-ya, classical 'adri-ba, asked; thu-gu, classical phru-gu, a son.

In other compounds the first consonant is dropped; thus, kon-chok, classical dkon-mchhog, God; tuk, classical gtugs, kissed; goi-pe, classical bgos-pas, dividing; dung. classical rdung, beat; dan-la, classical ldan-la, with; lang-wa, classical slang-ba, to rise; kat, classical skad, word, and so forth.

Tones and accents are probably the same as in Spiti.

NYAMKAT. 87

Inflexional system.—The suffix of the case of the agent is su as in Jad; thus, aba-su, by the father. The other cases are formed as in classical Tibetan.

'Thou' is khe-rang and khyot-rang.

With regard to verbs we may note the verb substantive hin, past hat, corresponding to classical Tibetan yin, yod, respectively.

The usual forms of the past add song or pa, wa; thus, zer-song, said; zer-wa, said. Forms such as tang-we, gavest, belong to the participle ending in wa. Compare kher-we, having brought; goi-pe, having divided. Poi, went, stands for dos, i.e. 'agros.

In the imperative suffixes such as go, shok, chuk are usually added. Thus, tang-go, to give is necessary, give; khur-shok, bring; cho-chuk, make, and so forth. Chuk is a causal termination.

The usual form of the verbal noun ends in ja; thus, za-ja, to eat.

For further details the student is referred to the specimen which follows.

[No. 8.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

TIBETAN.

NYAMKAT DIALECT.

(BASHAHR.)

MiChhungã-su chik thu-gu ni · hat. aba-la zer-song. Man one(-of)Young-by 80N8 twowere. father-to said. khe-rang-gi ' ngã-rang-la, aba, khang-zhing-nā ya phit-ka nga-rang-la 0 "me-to, father, house-field-from your me-to half tang-gō.' Aba-su thu-gu nī-la khang-zhing goi-pe tang-song. Shang-pa give.' Father-by sons two-to property dividing gave. Days phi-la thu-gu chhunga-su kho-rang-gi khang-zhing jamyo cha-song. nī three after his two son young-by property together made. Thak-ring vul-la do-ne kho-rang-gi zhing-kha najung-la Te-ne tang-song. Far country-to going his Then property girls-to gave. kho zhing-kha za-thung-zin-song, de-ne de sal. yul-la nā-met his property eat-drink-finished, then that country-in famine spread. Khorang nor-me-char-gok song. De yul-la $\mathbf{m}\mathbf{i}$ chig-gi lā-po Hepoor became. That country-in one-of service man che-song. Kho-rang-su zhing phak tsho-la De-ne kho-rang-gi tang-song. did. field swine Him-bu feeding-for Then sent. his phak-ghi bak-pho bat soi-ne dot-pa dang-we hin; kho-rang-la zhan-ma soiledswine-of husks eating belly satisfying is:him-to elsc gang-tang thok-pe hin. ma De-ne kho-rang 'ngã-rang-gi sam-la, anything notbeing-got Then was. he mind-in. 6 1721/ abai khang-la lā-po tsam duk. Kho-rang-la za-ja thung-ja father-of house-in Them-to servants how-many are. eating drinking darung mi-la go-ting poli mang-bo duk. Ngã tokri-su shiyā stillmen-to dividing-after bread muchis.I hunger-from dying duk. Ngã lang-we aba-la do-yong,' khorang-su zer-song, 'lo aba. I am. rising father-to go-shall, him-by said, '0 father. ngã-su shak-pa khe-rang-gi dun-la kon-chok mu-la che-song. Ngã me-by thyGod with presence-in sindid. I khe-rang-gi phocha-medo. thu-gu zer-ja Nga-rang-la khyot-rang-gi dan-la your able-not-am. 80N to-say Mе withyou-of

lā-po bar chho.' Kho lang-we kho-rang-gi abadan-la dul-song. servant like make.' He risina his father near went. Thu-gu thak-ring duk, kho-rang-gi aba-su thong-song; kho-rang-gi thu-gui far Son. is. hisfather-by 8a20 ; hisdul-ne song-wa, jug-po chug, ing-iar che-song: Kho-rang-gi kha tuk-song. made: going neck patted, mouth kissed. went. His 'lo thu-gu-su zer-song. aba, nga-rang-su khvot-gi dun-la kon-chok mu-la said. father, me-by thee-of before God to shak-pa ngã khe-rang-gi thu-gu che-song. Tak-sang zer pho-cha-medo.' sindid.Non I your 80n to-say able-not-am. Aba-su thok-po-la ʻga-mo ga-mo reshat kho-rang-la zer-wa. gon-we Father-by servants-to ' good said, goodcloth him-to putting-on khur-shok; lak-pa-la dugū-jukū-la (i.e., dzug-gu-la) sur-tup, da-rung kang-ba-labring: hand-on finger-on ring. andgon-we kapsha khur-shok. Ngã-rang-la za-ja thung-ia tong. da-rung shoesputting-on Us-to eating drinking bring. give, andsim-sol cho-chuk. Dar-ling nga-rang-gi thu-gu shi-song, tak-sang sanvo merru make. This-for died. ขณะ aline m_{y} 80n vong-song: nga-rang-la sim-sol cho-chuk.' us-to merry make.'

Te-ne Ta-sang kho-rang-gi thu-gu chhevā zhing-kha-la hat. kho-rang his elder Then he Then 80n field-in was. Kho-rang-su khang-bai ne-mo yong-song, phit-la lu tse go-song. outside singing dancing understood. Him-by house-of came, near hin? 'chi tam da-rung kho-rang vok-po-la kat-gyap-song di-ya, called ' what matter is?' and him asked,hin: Kho-rang-su kho-rang-la zer-wa, 'khyo-rang-gi no yong-a younger-brother ' thy is : Him-by him-to said. come thung-ja tang-song. aba-su phi-la za-ia khvo-rang-gi kho-rang-gi eating drinking gave. father-by his sake-for Chi-la, kho na-chha-met-pa yong-song.' Kho tshik-pa sai-song, lok-ne Why, illness-not-being returning came. Heword ate. he kho-rang-gi phit-la thon-song; nang-la mi do-ser-wa. De-ne aba father ourside insidenotgo-would. Therefore came; his 'lo mang-bo kho-rang-la sol-chan che-pe, kho-rang-su aba-la zer-wa. 'years entreaty doing, him-by father-to said.many medserphat. lā-po che-pa, nga-rang-su khe-rang-gi tam-la khe-rang-gi service doing, your ' not transgressed. me-by wordKhe-rang-su nam-shi-bar-du nga-rang-la chik chhung ra-bo \mathbf{m} a goatgavest, Thee-by smallnot ever-even me-to oneVOL. III, PART I. N

90 TIBETAN.

chuk-hin-am, nga-rang-gi shak-po mu-la rang-thak che-pa. Daji kho thu-gu wherefore, my friends with feast to-make. But that 80n chhungã yong-wa; kho-rang-su nor tshang-ma na-jung-la tang-wa-zin-song, young came; him-by property all harlots-to to-give-finished, thung-ja khė-rang-su kho-la za-ja tang-we.' Kho-rang-su zer-wa, ' to drinkingyou-by him-to eating gavest.' Him-by said, · 0 nga-rang-gi khyot hin-na nga-rang-gi thu-gu, nga-rang-dang; da-rung chi me-with; my thou 80n, and what is my nang-la thob-ong, kho khe-rang-la tshang-ma hin. Nga-rang-la do-chuk house-in will-he-found, that thee-to all i8. Us-to go kham-zang; khe-rang-gi no shi-sha-wa, tak-sang doi: sanyo merry; your younger-brother dead-was, now alive went; tor song-wa hin, tak-sang thop-song. lostgone found-was.' was, now

JAD DIALECT.

The Bhōtiās of Nilang in Tehri Garhwal are called Jads. They have originally come from Tibet. According to the District Gazetteer, they have now a large admixture of Garhwali and Bashahri blood, due in a great measure to the former practice of purchasing slave girls from the poorer Garhwalis.

The Jads are the carriers and brokers with Tibet, like the Bhōṭiās of the Kumaon valleys. In the winter they migrate southwards to Dhunda on the Bhagirathi some seven or eight marches below Nilang.

The number of speakers has been estimated for the purposes of this Survey at 106. At the last Census of 1901, there were 204 speakers of Bhōṭiā in Tehri Garhwal.

The Jad dialect is closely related to the Tibetan spoken in Spiti. The materials available are not sufficient for settling all questions of detail. The general character of the dialect will, however, be easily recognized.

A version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son in the Jad dialect will be printed below. It has been forwarded in the Tibetan character usual in the district, and in transliteration. The transliteration in one or two places differs from the original. I have not corrected such passages, because the transliteration apparently presents the better text. On the other hand, I have silently corrected the very numerous blunders in transliterating single words.

Phonology.—The phonetic system is, mainly, the same as in Spiti.

Initial soft consonants are pronounced with a very strong aspiration. The consequence is that they usually appear as hard letters. Thus, pa, cow; shu-ba, said; sin-ba, to be exhausted, and so forth.

Final g is apparently pronounced as k; thus, duk, is; mik, eye.

Final d is sometimes dropped, and sometimes pronounced as t. Thus, to-pa, classical Tibetan grod-pa, belly; do-cha, classical sdod-ches, to sit; yot, classical yod, is.

Final s is always dropped. Thus, gyal-kham, classical rgyal-khams, country; nyi, classical gnyis, two; nam, classical rnams, all. Nas becomes ne, i.e., nä, thus, di-ne, thereafter.

Double consonants are simplified, usually so that the first one is dropped. Thus, nyi, classical gnyis, two; son, classical gson, alive; nang, classical gnang, give; gu, classical dgu, nine; go, classical bgod, divide; shi, classical bzhi, four; dun, classical bdun, seven; ka, classical bka, word; ta, classical rta, horse; dung, classical rdung, beat; go, classical mgo, head; gya-tsho, classical rgya-mtsho, sea; nga, classical lnga, five; che, classical lche, tongue; chak, classical lchags, iron; kon, classical skon, put; kal, classical skal, share; mra, classical smra, say, and so forth.

Labials conjunct with y become palatals. Thus, cha-ba, classical bya-ba, deeds; chhi-la, classical phyi-la, outside, and so forth. In a similar way we often find ch, j, chh instead of ky, khy, gy, respectively. Thus, sa-ju, classical za-rgyu, eating for; chho-chi, classical khyod-kyi, thy. This latter change, however, does not appear to be more than a tendency. Compare gyal-sa, country; gyet, eat; yap-ki, of the father, and so forth.

92 TIBETAN.

When the last component of a compound letter is r, the whole compound is pronounced as a cerebral. Thus, ta, classical skra, hair; do-wa, classical 'a-gro-ba, go; tu, classical gru, ship; ti, classical 'a-dri, ask; tan, I, corresponding to classical bran, slave, and so forth.

Note da-wa, classical zla-ba, moon; ul-bo, classical dbul-ba, poor.

It is not possible to state how the p and b of the verbal suffixes pa, po, ba, bo, is pronounced. The regular form after vowels is apparently w. The same is probably the case after ng, r, and l. The specimen is, however, far from being consistent.

Tones and accent are probably the same as in the Central Dialect.

Inflexional system.—The various suffixes used in the inflexion of nouns and verbs are mainly the same as in classical Tibetan. I shall only make some few remarks on characteristic points.

Nouns and pronouns.—The suffix of the case of the agent is su; thus, yab-su, by the father.

Note the use of the prefix a in words such as a-ba, father; a-ma, mother; a-cho, elder brother, and so forth. Compare Ladakhī.

The particle of comparison is apparently sang as in Ladakhī. Compare ti a-cho ting-mo sang chhungun ring-bo tuk, his brother sister a little than more tall is, his brother is taller than his sister.

In addition to nga-rang, I, we also find tan, I. Tan is Tibetan bran, a slave. Note also chho-chi and chho-rang-gi, thy; khi and kho-rang-gi, his.

Verbs.—The most usual form of the past is the verbal noun ending in pa; thus, shu-ba, said. A periphrastic past is formed by adding song, went; thus, chung-song, became; nang-ba song, gave, and so forth.

In addition to the classical verbal noun ending in pa and similar suffixes, we also find such as are formed by adding a suffix corresponding to Ladakhi ches. Thus, do-cha, to sit; hong-ja, to come; tong-zha, seeing; dung-sha, beating, and so forth.

For further details the version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son which follows should be consulted. The specimen is not a good one, and it should be used with caution.

[No. 9.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

JAD DIALBOT.

(STATE TEHRI GARHWAL)

- Ch. of - ballow. Emi al Apr. mi al - 1. 26. our mais (guinted la mas. 26. 201) 2010 , de elle maine वाक व्यामिक नामाना विकास विवास व्यानार दुन्तुरा वर्षात्रा वर्षा वर्षा नामा प्तान्यान निर्देश मिर्टि का निर्देश कार्या का निर्देश भर्गात. नाद्वराचित्रच कि कि ग्रांचा के किला ना गुमाना मार् वदावी का व्यान درار ج کسی مر دور کار - حال ، حال ، حال ای ای تو ته که ای آل ای آل استان -स्पान्यता. के. एट पुषा पा के , मकी मां, ए सार के उप りいつ、こといいのの、ヨーラインシャング・マリーカーツー

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[No. 9.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

TIBETAN.

JAD DIALECT.

TRANSLITERATION AND TRANSLATION.

(STATE TEHRI GARHWAL.)

Mī chik-la Yang рū nyi. рū chung-ma yab-la shū-ba, Man one-to And father-to said. 80ns two. 80n younger 'nga-rang-la, nor-ki kāl nang-gō.' Yab-su pū-la vap. · me-to. property-of share father. give-must.' Father-by son-to nor-ki kâl nang-ba-song. Shag mang-bo ma song. рū chung-ma-su property-of share Days went, gave. many not80n young-by gyal-kham-la nor-nam dū-ba. tī-ru rang-gi nor-nam-la song yang country-to property-all gathered, went and there own property-all-to khang-men cha-ba metar-song. nor-sak-nam di Yang sin-song-ba, was-exhausted, evil doing squandered. And property thatsa-ju $\mathbf{m}\mathbf{i}$ duk. met-pa ul-po-ru gyal-sa-ru yang nor song. property not-being and misery-in went. country-in $eating \cdot means$ notwas, di gyal-sa-ki mī chhepo chik tung-du song-ba, vang mī Yang before Andthat country-of areatone went. and man man tang-ba-song. phak sa-bi sakhet chik-tu phak tsho-ru Yang chhepo-su swine eaten swine sent. And one-to feeding-for great-by field sak-ti rang so-na to dang-ba song; yang-su phu-mā yang $\mathbf{m}i$ food-that self eaten-if belly satisfied was; anyone-by straw even not chung-ba ti-tar Yang sem-la tong-ba tan-ba duk. tang-ba was-produced entering consideration thus And mind-in giving ายผร. yap-ki mang-po yot; yog-po-la to mang-po yog-po 'rang-gi mra-wa. belly muchservants-to 'self-of father-of servants many are: said. rang-ni yap-ki Tan tok-shi-la song. rang-ni do-ba yot, yang I self father-of hunger-dying went. and selfgoing is. kon-chhok-ki chho-rang-gi "yap, tan-ni shu-yong, tung do-yong, yang you-of will-say, "father, I heaven-of andhouse will-go, shikten" dí-ru-la ma yung-song, tung-du lavok-chung, yang ta-ni came, here-in not world before sinner-became, and now rang-gi yok-po chik-tang Tan-la jep-yong. chho-rang-gi di-ru рū yang Meself-of **servant** one-with here exchange-will. still 80nyour

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yab-ki rang-gi tung-du dzot." Di-ne song-ba yong. da-ba self-of father-of wentnear came. appoint." This-from like yang thong-zha kho-rang-gi yap-ni Yang kho yang sa-thak-ring-po yot-pa, his father far-off andseeing stillwas, he And wok-ma-la tham-ba mang-po mang-po nying-je chung, yang iug-ni embraced neck-on many and running many pity became, tan-su kon-chhok tang yab-ki Pū-su shū-ba, 'yap, tok-ma-po chung. and father-of father, me-by heaven Son-by said,kissing ensued. chho-chi chung-song, yang tshe-di tang ma рū layok yang chung; and time-this worthy(?)became. stillthu notson sinner became; kho-rang-gi vok-nam-la mra-wa. chung-song.' Yap-rang-su ° go di $\mathbf{m}\mathbf{a}$ said. 'cloth became.' Father-by own servants-to thisnotkon-shok; ti lak-pa-la surtup tang ti mi-la yang lak-po nyo-shok hishand-on this man-on put; andring andbuu sem-la kon-shok. Yang tan geri chung-ba; рũ di lham kang-ba-la AndI mind-in merry became; thisfeet-on shoes put. 80N shi-ba yang son-ba chung; tor-song-ba sem-chung-ba, yang sem-chung. thought, alive became; lost-gone thought, and anddead geri chung. thob-chung-ba.' Yang sem-ba-la chung mang-bo And muchfound-was.' mind-in merry to-become became.

chhe-ba sakhet duk-pa. Chhi-lok gye-ba khang-ba nye-mo-la Ti-shi pu Then son going house big. fieldwas. Outside near lulen tshor-ba. Yang yog-po chik-la ka nang-ba seba tang yang, dancing singing heard. Andservant one-to word andgaveand, 'di chi?' yang yog-po rang-su ti-ba. 'Tan-rang no-mo-chung (sic) di 'this what?' and servant self-by asked. ' My (?) brother-younger that lep-chung-ba, chho-rang yap-su mang-bo sin-pa tang-song, kho-rang-gi has-come. muchhis your father-by food gave, sem-la kit-po sem-ba-la tshik-pa chung-ba, sem-song.' Yang khang-pa-la mind-in thought.' happy And mind-to anger ensued. house-into · To $\mathbf{m}\mathbf{i}$ lok-sem-ba. Yang yab chhi-la chuk. lo ton-ne semso not return-would. And father coming to-entreat began. 'Lo outtar-na rang-gi shab-chik vin. Yang chho-rang-gi ka-la ka-shu-ba. according-to your servant And word-to am. your obeyed. Chho-rang-su tan-rang-la ri-gu chik yang ma tang, rang-gi \mathbf{rok} nyam You-by me-to kidone even notgavest, own friend withsem-pa-chi. Yang chho-chi lep-chung, ti-su рū rang-gi nor-sak-nam to-make-merry. And your 80n arrived, him-by own property shang-tshung-ma nyam te-ba-la tang-song, chho-rang-su khi phi-la shin-ba harlots with joining you-by his sake-for gave, feast

tar; 'pū, chho-rang ṭan-nyam¹ yot lo Yang khong-su, tang-song.' are years according-to; me-with you him-by, ' son, And gave.' ga-ba-chi tang-po Sem-la ga-ba yin, rang-la yot-pi chho-rang-la yin. rejoicing-of proper Mind-in to-rejoice is, is.you-to self-to being tor-song, shik-song-ba, son-song; yang no-mo(sic)chho-rang-gi Yang yin. lost-was, alive-came; dead-was, and brother And your is. thop-song.' found-was.'

¹ The use of the word tan by the father, when speaking to his son, is not correct. Nga must be used instead. !

GARHWAL DIALECT.

Tibetan is spoken by the Bhōtiās of Painkhanda in Garhwal. The southern boundary of the Bhōtiā tract consists of a line drawn from the western slope of Nanda Deir south-west to Trisul, thence north-west along the northern slopes of the Nandak peaks and along the water-shed between the Biri-Ganga and the feeders of the Dhauli to Salighat near Pana on the road between Ramni and Joshinath, whence it follows the Garur-Ganga to Pakhi. The Bhōtiās of the Mana and Niti valleys are called Mārchas.

Tibetan is also spoken by most of the Tolchas, the inhabitants of the villages not occupied by Bhōtiās in the Niti valley. They are of Khas origin.

The number of speakers of Tibetan in Garhwal has been estimated for the purposes of this Survey at 4,300. The corresponding figures at the last Census of 1901 were 1,891.

The Garhwal dialect is closely related to the form of Tibetan spoken by the Jads of Tehri Garhwal,

The materials forwarded from Garhwal for the purposes of this Survey do not appear to be trustworthy. There cannot, however, be any doubt about the general character of the dialect.

Phonology.—Soft initial consonants are probably pronounced with a strong aspiration, so as to be scarcely distinguishable from the corresponding hard sounds. Thus, ti, this; te, that; sa, to eat, and so on. In very many cases, however, the soft unaspirated consonant is retained, at least in writing. Thus, dug, is.

Final g and d are apparently rather faintly sounded. Compare spellings such as du, is; de, i.e., probably $d\ddot{o}$, classical Tibetan sdod, remain. Usually, however, the two sounds are preserved.

Final s is dropped. Compare nyi, classical Tibetan gnyis, two; sap-ji, classical zhabs-phyi, servant. As becomes e, i.e., ä; thus, te-ne, thereafter.

Zh occurs as sh, j, and s; thus, shak, classical zhag, day; ji, classical bzhi, four; sap-ji, classical zhabs-phyi, servant. The actual pronunciation is probably sh.

J is also often written instead of classical z. Thus, jung(-song), classical bzung, seized. Similarly j and dz, ch and ts, are not properly distinguished in the specimen.

Compound consonants are simplified. The first consonant is dropped if the last component is not a y or an r. Thus, leb, classical slebs, came; ta, classical lta, see; gon, classical sgon, put on; gal, classical sgal, a load; top, classical stob, food; de, classical sdod, remain; jim, classical gzim, sleep; kon-pa, classical dkon-pa, dear; dhu, classical bsdus, close; go, classical mgo, head; tshan, classical mtshan, might, and so forth.

A y coalesces with a preceding b or ph to ch or j; thus, chung and jung, classical byung, became; sap-ji, classical zhabs-phyi, servant. Phyi, however, also becomes phi; thus, phi-la, for the sake of.

The genitive suffix gyi, kyi, becomes chi; thus, nam-chi, of the heaven. Khy, on the other hand, remains, or is changed to kh if an e follows. Thus, khyo and khe, thou.

Compound letters containing an r as the last component are changed to cerebrals. Thus, thuk-pa, classical 'a-khrug-pa, quarrel; do, classical 'agro, go; thu-gu, classical phru-gu, child, and so forth.

Note da-wa, classical zla-ba, month.

Tones and accents are probably the same as in other dialects of Central Tibetan.

Nouns and Pronouns.—The prefix a is used in a-pa, father.

The suffix la is very commonly used to form the case of the agent in the Parable; thus, thu-gu chhung-la apa-la ka lab, son youngest-by father-to word said, the youngest son said to his father. This use of la is perhaps due to misunderstanding by the translator.

The suffix su is used to form an ablative. Thus, tokri-su, from hunger; Jang-su, from Tibet.

With regard to pronouns we may note hago and ogo, I; nge, my, I; nga-la, by me, to me; nga-rang, we; khyo and khe, thou; kho and kho-ba, he; kho-ba-i, by him; kho-be-la, by him, to them; di-ba, they.

Verbs.—A compound present can be formed by adding dug, is, to a participle ending in khan; thus, shi-khan-dug, am dying.

Several forms are in use in the past tense. In addition to forms such as lab, thought, said; ma song, did not go; jung, became; do-song, went, and so forth, we may note such as are made by adding <u>tshar</u> or yod to the base. Thus, cha-yod, did; tang-yod, sent; cha-<u>ts</u>har, made.

The usual verbal noun ends in ja; thus, do-ja, going; $\underline{ts}ho-ja$, to feed. The conjunctive participle ends in tin, i.e. perhaps $t\tilde{i}$; thus, do-tin, having gone.

For further details the student is referred to the specimens which follow. The first is the beginning of a version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son, and the second is the statement of a witness. The latter is apparently much more correct than the former.

[No. 10.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

TIBETAN.

GARHWAL DIALECT.

SPECIMEN I.

(PAINKHANDA, GARHWAL.)

Kho-su thu-gu chhung-la apa-la Chik-che-na mi-chi nyi thu-gu du. Them-from 80n young-by father-to A-certain man-of two sons were. iung-na nge kal-la tang-chhuk.' 'yo lab. chi nor ka apa, give.' which becomes my share-to 0 father, property word said. kal-la-cha-tshar. kho-be-la Mang-po shak-pa Te-ne kho-ba-i rang nor him-by share-into-made. them-to Many daysThen own property thu-gu chhung kun dum che-tin sa-ring-bo do-song. Kho-be ma song, There vouna alltogether making country-far went. not went. son jung-tin shak-po don-met khem-yod, nor-chi med-ra-che. rang iun-ba property-of squandered. beina days uselessspent, own extravagant tha-la Kho-be-la med-ra-cha-tshar. te-ne mang-mo kon-po kun jung. squandered-made, there bigfamine fell. Him-by allthen vul-ba-la chik-la tha-la $\mathbf{m}\mathbf{i}$ Kho-rang kopryá jung. Kho do-tin poor became. He therecountry-in IIegoing man one-with dod-ja cha-yod; kho-ba-i rang sing-la phak tsho-ja tang-yod. Kho-la residing made; him-by own field-to swineto-feed sent. Him-by tot-pa khe-che-ja phung-ma phak sa-ja rang nak-sum-yod: mi-duk jan food to-fill other grass swine own belly wanted; not-was kho-be-la chhung tang-ja. Te-ne sem-la kho-la hago jung, him-to unything to-give. Then mind-in consciousness him-by came. mi-la lap-song, 'nge chi-da-bu-tsang apa tsam top-ia takri said. 'my father(-of) men-to how-good many food bread hago tokri-su tang-ja-yod; si-khan du. Nge long-tin rang-chi apa is-given; I hunger-from dying I arising own-of am. father "yo tsa-la do-ong kho-la ka-chha lab-yong. rang-la apa, nam-chi near go-shall him-to words say-shall, " O father, self-by heaven-of dik-pa, khyo thong nyi-bo dikpa cha-yod. seba Nge khyo-chi thu-gu sin, your sightnear sindid.1 again thy 80n

lap-ja $\mathbf{m}\mathbf{a}$ jung. Nga-la khe-rang-chi yok-po chik chokta nga-la yang Meto-say not became. your servant like me one alsochi.", Te-ne kho long-tin rang Kho-rang apa tsa-la do-yod. make." Then hearising father own nearwent. Heyod, kho-be kho thong-tin chhen nying-je; ring-bo-la apa-la shari kho far was, his father-by him seeing muchpity; quickly he do, kho-be-chi oli jung-tin jum-yod. Thu-gu lab-yod, 'yo apa, went,hisneckseizing kissed.Son · 0 said. father, nge-la nam-chi dik-pa khyo thong nyi-ba dik-pa cha-yod. Seba me-by heaven-of sinthysightneardid. sinAgain lap-ja jung.' khyo-chi thu-gu Kho-so apa-la $\mathbf{m}\mathbf{a}$ rang sap-ji-la thy sonto-say notbecame.' Thenfather-by own servants-to lab-yod, 'kun thi-ya pu-tsang gon-ja tho-tin kho-la gon-chhuk. Kho-chi said, 'all withgoodclothtaking him-to put-on. Hislak-pa-la kho-chi kang-ba kap-sha gon-chhuk. jugu, Nga-rang sa-ja-su his hand-on feet: shoesput-on. Wering, eating khyo dalpu-chi; khe-rang-chi thu-gu shi-khan son-po tel: yang rejoice-let; ou-self-of dead and(?)son even alivecame; dal-pu jung-yod. tor-tin thob-song.' Kho-rang having-been-lost was-found.' They merry became.

[No. II.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP

TIBETAN.

GARHWAL DIALECT.

SPECIMEN II.

(PAINKHANDA, GARHWAL.)

Di da-wa-la dang-ma, nge Jang-su lok-tin tel-khan dug. This month-in beginning, \boldsymbol{I} Tibet-from returning coming was. Gya-tha-pa lug nye-bo Ti-la ogo dug. le tsha bal kal-vod Hundred sheep with me were. These-on saltborax woolloaded nyi-bo dug. Ogo Nenu Padam-Si Ringjin Sowanu ti mi ji Мe was. withNenu Padam-Si Ringjin Sowanu thesc men four ya mi dug. Di-ba lug-la tsha-kun kal-tin kher-khan yod. Nga These were. alsomen sheep-on salt-all loading bringing were. Five tshe-la tshamo ogo-rang dosa Chhong-sa-la leb-song. Yul-la phe-tar date-in day Niti-to our camp arrived. Village-at outside Tshan-la pok-song. de-ne kun jim-song, ti-chung phe-ka-tshan-la ten't pitched. Night-in then allslept,this-about mid night-at khojam lug-gal-la go mi-lham chung chok-ta jung. Lem time'. my sheep-loads-in 80me dream like happened. At-once go-na-su go-lak phar-jung thok-song. lug-gal-la Ogo tsa-la Nenu head-from bed-sheet lifted looked. $M_{\mathcal{U}}$ sheep-loads-to near Nenu ta-tin yod. Ogo kha dhu-tin de-yod ta-tin yod. ti chi che-khan looking was. I mouthclosing remained looking was, he what doing Nenu-la vod. ogo go-na-su go-lak phar thong-med. Kho-rang Nenu-to was. I head-from bed-sheet removing seen-was-not. Heji lug-gal kher-tshar kho 020 yul-chhok kher-tshar. Ogo nvi-bo bags mine four took then village-towards took. Me near Sowanu nyal-yod. cha-tin kho-rang-la lang-song. Ogo ga-le Te-ne ogo Sowanu slept. I quietly doing himraised. Then Nenu-la seba-seba song-yod. mi kho Ringjin-la, long-shok, Padam-Si twoNenu men after went. Padam-Si and Ringjin-to. rise. Yul-chi nyi-mo Nenu-la thiya lug-gal ogo che-vod. jung-song. Kho-la Village-of made. near Nenu with bags seized. we Himdi-song, 'khe-rang ti lug-gal chi-phi-la kher-song?' Kho-ba lab-song, asked; 'you these bags why took? He said.

kher-yod.' Te-ne bor-ja-la Nge kho-la vul-la 'lug-gal ogo yin. Then brought.' I village-in leaving-for 'bags mine are. themlang-yod. Thab-sha cha-tin-la nge-la Te-ne dung-ja-la thuk-pa che-jung. began. Means making-by Then beating-for me-with quarrel made. Te-ne thiya lug-gal kher-song. kho-la jum-tin vul-la hago kho-la himwithThen bagshim seizing village-into brought. we gat-po-la chung-sar. handed-over: official-to

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

In the beginning of this month I returned from Tibet with a hundred sheep, loaded Nenu, Padam-Si, Ringjin, and Sowanu were with me. with salt, borax, and wool. They also brought salt on their sheep. On the fifth our camp reached Niti, and we pitched our tents outside the village. When we were all asleep at mid-night I dreamt about my bags. I removed the bed-cloth from my head, and I saw Nenu looking at my I remained silently looking on, to ascertain what he was about. Nenu was not aware of the fact that I had removed the bed-cloth from my head. He took four of my bags and went towards the village. Sowanu slept near me, and I roused him quietly. Then we followed after Nenu, and we also roused Padam-Si and Ringjin. Nenu with the bags near the village. I asked him why he had taken the bags. said, 'they are mine, and I am going to leave them in the village.' He began to quarrel with me, and to beat me. We only with difficulty succeeded in arresting him. then brought him to the village, and handed him and the bags over to the revenueofficer.

KĀGATE.

The Kagate dialect of Tibetan is closely related to the so-called Sharpa and to the Tibetan of Sikkim. It is spoken in Eastern Nepal and in Darjeeling. We have not, however, any information about the number of speakers.

A version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son and a list of Standard Words and Phrases have been forwarded from Darjeeling. They are the only foundation of the remarks on Kāgate which follow.

Pronunciation.—The spelling of the specimens does not correctly reflect the actual pronunciation of the dialect. It is not, however, difficult to get a general idea of the phonetic system.

The short u is often pronounced as an \ddot{u} , i.e., the sound of \ddot{u} in German 'küssen.' In such cases it is written i, and I have retained this spelling because it is possible that the sound is almost that of i in 'pin.' Compare tin, classical Tibetan bdun, seven; song and sing, the suffix of past time; su and si, who? etc. Compare also tharung, classical thag-ring, far. E is written in pe-mi, classical bud-med, woman. The letter e apparently also represents the sounds of \ddot{a} in German 'Bär' and of \ddot{o} in German 'bös'; compare ne, Lhasa dialect $n\ddot{a}$, from; te, Lhasa dialect $d\ddot{o}$, to sit, etc.

With regard to consonants it should be noted that the sounds j, dz, z, and zh are not correctly distinguished in the specimens. Compare kaze, how many; o-je, so many; pi-za, i.e., probably pi-dza, child; minji and minzi, from; do-ze, i.e., probably do-zhe, to go, etc.

Soft initials are usually hardened; thus pu, classical bu, son; dung-la and tung-la, before, etc. The intermediate form, with an aspirated hard initial, occurs in phu, son. On the other hand, hard initials are occasionally softened when preceded by vowels or nasals in compound words; thus, tham-je, classical thams-chad, all.

With regard to final consonants g is usually changed to k, and b to p; thus, chik, one; phak, swine; lep, arrive. Compare classical Tibetan gchig, phag, sleb. Final g is often also dropped. Compare mi, classical mig, eye; sho, classical shog, come.

Final gs is dropped in words such as cha, classical lchags, iron; to, classical ltogs, hunger.

Final d is dropped and the preceding vowel is modified so that a becomes e (i.e., probably \ddot{a}), o becomes e, o, or oe, i.e., probably \ddot{o} , etc.; thus, ke, classical brgyad, eight; te, classical 'adod, sit; kaze, classical $ga-\underline{t}shod$, how much; khyo, classical khyod, thou; e and yoe, classical yod, is.

Final n seems to exercise a similar influence on a preceding vowel. Compare the suffix of the present participle ken or kin, Ladakhi mkhan.

Final s is dropped; compare tham-je, classical thams-chad, all. A preceding vowel is modified, and probably lengthened; thus, le, i.e., $l\bar{a}$, classical las, from; $ny\bar{\imath}$, classical gnyis, two.

In compound consonants containing a subscribed y as second component in classical Tibetan, this y is dropped before i and e; thus, khi, classical khyi, dog; pe, classical byed, do. In other cases y is retained after gutturals; thus, khyo, classical khyod, thou; kyap, classical rgyab, back.

By becomes ch; thus, cha, classical bya, bird.

KĀGATE.

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R is dropped after k, g, and d, and probably also after other mutes. Kr, gr and dr become d or t; thus, ta, classical skra, hair; dem-ba, classical 'agram-pa, cheek; do, classical 'agro, go; te, classical 'adri, ask, etc. In tuk, classical drug, six, dr has been changed to t, and it is probable that the d and t in the other instances just quoted were originally likewise cerebral. Note prang-bu, poor.

Zl becomes d in dawa, classical zla-ba, moon, and lh is replaced by lekh in lekham, classical lham, shoe.

In other compounds the first consonant is dropped; thus, lang, classical glang, bull; lep, classical sleb, arrive; kang-ba, classical rkang-ba, foot; ta, classical rta, horse; che, classical lche, tongue; ke, classical skad, sound; tong-bu, classical sdong-po, tree; nang, classical gnang, give; ngul, classical dngul, silver; tin, i.e., tün, classical bdun, seven, and so forth.

Note sup-tur instead of sur-tup, classical sor-gdub, finger ring.

Articles.—The numeral chik, one, is used as an indefinite, and the demonstrative pronoun di, this, as a definite article; thus, mi chik, a man; angsha-di, the share.

Nouns—Gender.—Gender is distinguished by using different words or by adding qualifying affixes; thus, no, brother; nu-mu, sister: pu, son; po-mo, daughter: ta-bu, horse; ta-mu, mare: changre, he-goat; ra-ma, she-goat: khyesa, male deer; khyesa ama, female deer, etc.

Number.—The usual suffix of the plural is kya; thus, aba-kya, fathers; compare cha in Panjong-kä.

Case.—The suffix of the genitive is i, ki, or gi after vowels, and i or ki after consonants. The same form is also used as a case of the agent. The final i is, however, then probably long. Thus, $aba\ chik-i$, of a father; ta-bi, from ta-bu-i, of a horse; tong-bu-gi, of a tree; phak-ki, by the pigs, etc. The definite article is often added in the genitive; thus, $aba\ chik-i-di$, of a father. Di is used alone as a genitive suffix in po-mu-di, of daughters.

Other cases are formed by adding suffixes such as la, in, to; sa-le, from the place of, from; minji, minjik, min-zi, min-zik, from; dung-la, before, etc. Note aba-kei, to fathers.

Adjectives.—Adjectives sometimes precede and sometimes follow the noun they qualify. The particle of comparison is the Naipālī bhanda; thus, kho-i a-zi bhanda no rim-bu-du, his sister than brother tall-is, his brother is taller than his sister.

Pronouns.—The following are the personal pronouns:—

nga, I khyo, thou kho, he

ngi-kya, o-kya, we khyo, you khung, khung-kya, they.

The pronouns are inflected like nouns.

Other pronouns are di, this; o and o-di, that; su, who? chi, what? kan-di, which? etc.

Verbs.—The usual bases of the verb substantive are e and du. Instead of e we also find ye and yoe; compare classical Tibetan yod. In the past tense we find woe.

Finite verb.—The verb is still virtually a noun. The subject of transitive verbs is put in the case of the agent, and the plural suffix kya can be added. Thus, kasa-te-vol. III, PART I.

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me-ji kan-di phak-ki sa-gen-kya, husks-from which pigs-by eating, from the husks which the pigs ate.

Present time.—A present is formed by adding yin to a participle ending in ka, pa, etc.; thus, ngai rob-ken, i.e. rob-ka-yin, I strike; nga do-n, i.e. do-a-yin, I go. It is perhaps identical with ne in ong-ne, they are.

A compound present is formed by adding gu or ku, or, after vowels, u, and the verb substantive; thus, chho-u-du, he is feeding; kho-i rob-ku-du, he strikes; te-ku-e, he lives; ong-gu du-ba, he is coming.

Du-ba, is, in the last instance contains the usual suffix of the participle; compare also ye-ba, they are. To in rob-to, they strike, is probably the copula du.

Past time.—The participle ending in ba or pa is commonly also used as a past tense, especially in the second person; thus, nyo-ba, I brought, thou broughtest; kal-pa, wentest; se-pa, killedest.

The most common past tense is formed by adding song, or, usually, sing, (i.e., probably $s\ddot{u}ng$); thus, gal-song and kal-sing, he went. The common present is also used as a past; thus, e-kin, i.e. yod-ka-yin, was.

A perfect is effected by adding du; thus, nye-sing-du, has been found.

Future.—The present is also used as a future; thus, don, I will go; lap-ken, I will say; ong-do, I shall be. I do not understand the form nyai rob-ken dei, I shall strike. Dei is perhaps an attempt at writing dü, i.e., du, is.

Imperative.—As in classical Tibetan, an a is often changed to o in the imperative; thus, song, go; so, eat; long, stand. The unaltered base is used in forms such as shi, die; do, go; ter, give. Sometimes we find suffixes added such as kong, tong, duny, and ter; thus, rob-kong (i.e. perhaps rob-ka-tong) and rob-tong, beat; pe-dung (i.e. perhaps byed-tong), make; ken-ter, put on.

Note khusi pe-ga, let us make merry; khusi pe-dung pe-kogem, we should make merry; ya-bu pe-za-ga, that I might feast.

Verbal nouns and participles.—The most common verbal noun is formed by adding che, or, after vowels, ze; thus, lap-che, to say; do-ze, to go. A suffix a occurs in charai-te-ya-la, in order to feed.

Relative participles are formed by adding ken or gen and ba. The interrogative pronoun kan-di, which? is used as a relative; thus, kasa-te-meji kan-di phak-ki sa-gen-kya, from the husks which the pigs ate; di pu kan-di khyoi-di chhega-kya sa-sing-ba, this son who thy goods devoured.

Adverbial participles are formed by adding postpositions to the base; thus, lap-na, saying-in, if you say; ong-a-te-su, arriving-after, when he came.

Conjunctive participles are formed by adding di, ti, or di-ma-rang; thus, rob-sing-di, having beaten; kal-di-ma-rang, having gone. Ma-rang is a postposition which governs the genitive. It is therefore also-added to the genitive of the base; thus, sing-i-ma-rang, having been. Tha-ma-la, at the end of, is used instead in ke-kyap-ti tha-ma-la, voice-throwing after, having called.

Negative particle.—The negative particle is a prefixed me or ma; thus, kal-di me-ken, going not-were, did not go; me-ter-ekin, not-giving-was, did not give: ma-nuin.

did not wish. *Mat* is sometimes used instead; thus, *mat-ter*, didst not give; *tor-mat*, I did not transgress. It will be seen that *mat* sometimes precedes and sometimes follows the verb.

For further details the student is referred to the specimen which follows and to the list of words on pp. 142 and ff.

[No. 12.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

TIBETAN.

KAGATE DIALECT.

(DISTRICT DARJEELING.)

Mi chik-i-di nyī ekin. O-la-thong-di kanchha-ki pe-za lap-sing. Man one-of sonstwowere. Them-among younger-by said. ʻе sampati-min-jik nga-i angsha-di nang.' a-ba. nga-la O-le kho-i property-from share-the me-to give.' Then father, ทเบ him-bu khung-kei rang-i sampati bo-kep-ter-sing. Nvi-ma mang-bu-rang kal-di them-to self-of property divided-gave. Days many-even going kanchha phu tham-je batul-ti-di tharung-bu me-ken. des-la kal-sing: sonallgathering distant country-to not-were, young went: o-la ma-ya-ba le-ga pedi-ma-rang kho-i tham-je chij urāī-te-sing. and there not-good workdone-having him-by all property squandered. kho-i tham-je urāī-te-sing, Jab o-le kho des-la anikāl kal-sing: When him-by squandered, allthen that country-in fumine went: kal-sing. O-le kho o-le kho prang-bu kal-di-ma-rang 0 des-la went. and he poor And he gone-having that country-in te-ken-sa-ke-la chik sa-la te-che Khoi pe-sing. kho-la sing-la phak inhabitants-in living made. him-to one to Him-by field-in svoinecharai-te-ya-la tang-sing. O-le khoi kasa-te-me-ji kan-di 0 phak-ki feeding-for sent. Then him-by those husks-from which swine-by sagen-kya, to-pa kang-je ngaï os-te-la. O-le si-nang kho-la chyang eating-were, belly fill-to And own wanted. anyone-by him-to anything me-ter-e-kin. O-le kho-la chet kal-sing, o-le khoi lap-sing, 'nga-i not-giving-was. And him-to sense went, and him-by said. 'my khetälä-kei-di a-ba-di mang-bu-rang saje ong-ne, o-le nga to-pa-to-di father-of servants-of many-even breads I are. and belly-hungering siwe. Nga lang-di a-ba-sa-la don. o-le kho-sa-la die. I arisen-having father's-place-to will-go, and his-place-to kal-di-ma-rang lap-ken, «e a-ba, nga-i sarga-ki dung-la n-le rang-i gone-having **"O** father, me-by heaven-of say, before and you-of pe-sing. tung-la pāp Nga phir-cha rang-i pu lap-che lāik-ki-di me. before 8in did. I again your 80n say-to worthy not. Nga-la rangi khetālā-min-ji chik-pa-rang pedung."' O-le kho Me-to your-own servants-from one-also make." Then he

lang-di-ma-rang rangi a-ba-sa-la gal-song. Tara kho tharung-bu arisen-having own father's-place-to went. Buthe far-off khoi ekin. a-ba-gi kho-la thong-di dayā O-le chhung-di-ma-rang pe-sing. was. his father-by him-to seeing mercy made. Andrun-having kho-i dem-ba-la jar-ti-ma-rang kho-la chok-pe-sing. Pu-gi kho-la lap-sing, his cheek-on adherina him-to kiss-made. Son-by him-to said. é e a-ba. nga-gi sarga-di tung-la o-le khvo-i tung-la pāp pe-sing, o-le 'O father, me-by heaven-of before and before you-of sindid. and phircha khyo-i pu lap-che-gi hisāh me.' O-le a-ba-gi rangi again vour son saying-of matter not. And father-by oron naukar-kya-la lap-sing. 'kap-tar bhanda ya-bu kela ten-di-ma-rang kho-la servants-to said. 'all than goodclothtaken-having him-to ken-ter. O-le kho-i lak-pa-la sup-tur o-le kang-ba-la lekham kenter: put-on. And hishand-on ring andfeet-on shoes put: o-le kva-ba riu khyung-di-ma-rang set-tong. O-le o-kya S8. o-le fatbrought-having and kidkill. And we eat. and khusi-pega. Che-le lap-na, di nga-i-di pu si-di eken, phir-cha merry-make-shall. Why saying-on, this my son dead again was. thar-sing; tor-ti-eken, phircha nve-sing.' O-le khung-kya khusi pe-ze saved-was: lost-was, again found-was.' Then they merry make-to kal-sing. went.

Kho-i jetha pu sing-la eken. O-le iab kho onga-te-su Hiselderson field-in was. Andwhen hecoming khim-sa-la lep-sing; o-le bājā nāch-ki the-sing. ke O-le kho-gi house-place-to arrived; then music dancing-of sound heard. Then him-by ke-kvap-ti tha-ma-la nva-rangi $\mathbf{m}\mathbf{i}$ chik-la 'di te-sing, chum-ba?' own man one-to voice-throwing after asked, 'this what-is? Kho-i kho-la lap-sing, 'khyo-rangi no wang-di-e, 'your-own Him-by him-to said.younger-brother come-is, and a-ba-gi khyo-rangi kya-ba riu se-sing. Che-le lap-na. kho-la va-bu your father-by fat kidkilled. Whysaying-on, him well nve-sing-du.' O-le kho-i sitang-pe-sing, o-le nang-la do-ze ma-nyim. found-has.' And him-by anger-made, andinsidego-to not-wished. O-kāran kho-i a-ba phi-la ong-di kho-la samjāi-te-sing. Kho-i That-reason hisfather outsidecoming him entreated. Him-by jawab ter-sing, 'teya, nga o-je lo-minji khyo-rangi hisāb father-to answer gave, · lo. Iso-many years-from your service o-le pewi namang rangi tım namang tor-mat. O-le rangi do and your order ever ever broke-not. And yourself-by

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mi-kya nyim-bu nga-i-to riu mat-ter, ya-bu namang chig-ang nga-la friends withkidnot-gave, my wellme-to one-even ever kan-di chhya-mu-kya nyim-bu O-le khyo-gi di pu pe-za-ga. thisharlots who with Andyour 80N making-for. khyo-i kho-i sa-sing-ba, namong-bu, o-te-su vaste-la khyo-i-di chhega-kya wasted, when came, then you-by hi8 sake-for goodsyour kho-la lap-sing, 'е pu, khyo kya-ba se-pa.' A-ba-gi nga riu · 0 killed.Father-by him-to said, 80n, you fat kidme khyo-i-di-rang. O-le chi nga-i-di-cha, 0 sentha nyimbu ya-range. allthatthine-also. with Andwhatmine-is, are. khusi pedung pe-ko-gem. Che-le lap-na, di khyo-i pe-di O-le va-bu Why saying-on, this make should. your And welldoing merry sidi-eken, phir-cha thar-sing; tor-te eken, phir-cha no younger-brother saved-was; lost dead-was, was, again again nye-sing.' found-was.

SHARPA

The Tibetan word shar means 'east,' and shar-pa accordingly means 'inhabitant of an eastern country.' The latter word is commonly used to denote the Bhōṭiās of north-eastern Nepal and their dialect. They are also found as immigrants outside of Nepal. During the preliminary operations of this Survey their dialect was reported to be spoken in Darjeeling and Sikkim. Estimates of the number of speakers were only forwarded from Sikkim, as follows:—

Sikkim											•	900
CIRCUIT	•	•	•	•	•	-	-	•	-	•	-	

At the last Census of 1901 the Sharpa dialect was returned from the following districts:—

Darjeeling		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	3,477
Sikkim													^-
Jalpaiguri				•									18
										То	TAL	•	4,407

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HUNTER, W. W.,-A Comparative Dictionary of the Languages of India and High Asia. London, 1868.

A version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son and a list of Standard Words and Phrases have been received from Darjeeling. In addition to these texts I have also made use of some few sentences which were added at the end of the Parable. The spelling of the texts is influenced by the orthography of classical Tibetan, and it does not allow us to judge about all niceties of pronunciation. It is, however, quite possible to get a general idea of the phonetic system.

Sharpa is closely connected with Kāgate and Dānjong-kā. It can, with some correctness, be described as a form of the latter dialect, and it has very few characteristics of its own.

Pronunciation.—The vowels are modified in various ways, usually under the influence of following consonants. Sometimes also concurrent vowels are contracted; thus, sui and si, i.e., probably $s\ddot{u}$, whose; di, classical 'agro-i, of the going; khi, thy, from khyo, thou, and so forth.

The soft initials of classical Tibetan are sometimes represented by soft and sometimes by hard consonants; thus, dang and tang, and; bu and pu, son. The actual pronunciation is probably an aspirated soft consonant as in most dialects of Central Tibetan.

Final g and b are probably pronounced as k, p, respectively. They are, however, usually written g, b, respectively; thus, chig, one; mig, eye; shog, come; gyab, back; lep, arrive.

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Final d is often left unchanged; thus, dod, sit; yod, is. Such forms are due to the influence of the orthography of the classical language, and d is dropped or changed to t in the actual pronunciation. At the same time a preceding vowel is modified. A becomes e, i.e., probably ä; o becomes oi, (i.e., ö); and u probably becomes ü. Compare gye, classical bryyad, eight; goid-ma, classical rgod-ma, mare; goi, classical bgod, divide; khyo and khyod, thou; gi, classical bgyid, do, and so on. It will be seen that the d is often preserved in writing.

Final n seems to affect a preceding a in a similar way; compare sem-chen, classical sems-chan, animal; shing-tab-khen, cultivator; ten, classical dvan, remember. It is sometimes dropped after i; compare the suffix gi of the present participle, classical gin.

Final s is probably always dropped, or rather changed to i. This i then coalesces with the preceding vowel so that a becomes ä, for which i or ai is often written; os becomes oi, i.e., probably ö; us becomes ui or ue, (i.e., probably ü); thus, nä and ni, classical nas, from; goi, it is wanted, classical dgos; thoi-pai, on hearing, classical thos-pas; lue, entreated, classical bslus, etc. The final s is, however, often retained in writing; thus, ngas, by me; papa-s, by the father; yog-pu-s, by the servant, etc.

Final gs is dropped in words such as cha, classical lchags, iron; le-mo, classical legs-pa, good; lho-ba, classical ltogs-pa, hunger. The latter example is not certain, for we also find tog-ni, hungering. The interjection lags, O, is classical Tibetan.

Compound consonants are mainly simplified in the same way as in Kagate.

Ky, khy, and gy are commonly retained; thus, kyid-po and kid-po, merry; khyod and khyo, thou; gyab, back. Y is, however, often dropped before i; thus, kyid-po and kid-po, merry; khi, dog; khi, thy; gi, classical bgyid, do.

Py, phy, and by become ch, chh, and ch, respectively; thus, chod-pa, classical spyod-pa, behaviour; chhi-la, classical phyi-la, outside; chung, classical 'abyung, became; ched-pa, classical byed-pa, do. Y is however, also in this case, often dropped before i; thus, phin, classical phyin, go; bin, classical sbyin, give.

Compounds consisting of a mute consonant followed by an r are changed to the corresponding cerebral. The cerebrals were not distinguished from the dentals in the original specimen. I have, however, introduced them because it seems probable that Sharpa does not, in this respect, differ from Dänjongkä. Compare tog, classical grogs, friend; don, classical mgron, feast; tug, classical drug, six; thug, classical phrug, young, etc.

Zl becomes d in da-wa, classical zla-ba, moon.

In most other cases the first consonant is dropped. Compare lu, classical slu, entice; lang, classical glang, bull; lep, classical sleb, arrive; kang-pa, classical rkang-pa, foot; yyab, classical rgyab, back; goid-ma, classical rgod-ma, mare; na, classical rna, ear; nga, classical lnga, five; cha, classical lchags, iron; ter, classical ster, give; tor, classical gtor, throw; sos, classical gsos, recover; shi, classical bzhi, four, and so forth.

Articles.—The numeral chig, one, is used as an indefinite, and demonstrative pronouns as a definite article; thus, mi chig, a man; u-ju te, the elder brother; papa ti, the father.

Nouns—Gender.—Gender is distinguished in the usual way by means of affixes or by using different words. Compare ta, horse; goid-ma, mare: lang, bull; chhung-ma, cow: khi, dog; khi-mo, bitch: ra-pho, he goat; ra-mo, she goat.

Number.—The usual suffix of the plural is <u>ts</u>ho, classical <u>ts</u>hogs, multitude; thus, papa-<u>ts</u>ho, fathers.

Case.—The various cases are, broadly speaking, formed as in classical Tibetan.

The suffix of the genitive is i, or, after consonants, gi or ki; thus, agu-i, uncle's; yul-gi, of a country; chig-gi and chig-ki, one's.

The case of the agent, which is also used as an instrumental, is formed by adding s to the base or to the genitive. This s is probably everywhere pronounced as i; compare pa-ba-s, by the father; phag-pa-i, (eaten) by the pigs; thag-pa-i, (bind him) with ropes; pu-jung-gi, by the son.

Adjectives.—Adjectives follow the noun they qualify, or, if they precede it, are put in the genitive; thus, ta karpa, the white horse; kun-la phen-pai cha-wa che, all-to beneficial work do.

The particle of comparison is si-na; thus, khoi uju te aji si-na ring-po nog, his brother the sister than tall is, his brother is taller than his sister. Si-na literally means 'saying-in,' 'if you compare.'

Numerals.—The numerals are given in the list of words. *Khal-jig*, score-one, twenty, occurs in the sentence *nga lo khal-jig song*, I years twenty went, I am twenty years old. Compare Sunwar *khal-kā*; Khambu *ikkhālo*; Róng *khā-kāt*, etc.

Pronouns.—The following are the personal pronouns:—

nga, I khyod, khyed, khyo, thou kho, he
nga-i, my khyod-ki, khyed-ki, khi, thy
dak-pu, nga-tsho, we khyod-tsho, khyod-rang, you kho-tsho, they

Demonstrative pronouns are de, te, that; di, this.

Interrogatives are su, who? sui, si, whose? gang, kang, what?

Verbs.—The verb substantive is formed from various bases such as yin, yod, od, nok, yong, chung, etc. Nok is probably derived from in-nok.

Present time.—The base alone is used as a present; thus, shi, I die.

The participle ending in pa is sometimes used in a similar way; thus, yod-pa, is.

The most common present is formed by adding gi, classical gin, and yot in the first, and nog in the second and third persons. Thus, $ngas\ dung$ -gi-yod, I beating am; $khyod\ do$ - $gi\ nog$, thou goest; isho- $gi\ nog$, he is feeding.

Past time.—The past base alone is used in forms such as nang, classical gnang, gavest; tor, classical gtor, he threw; ma doe, classical ma'agros, he did not go; lue, classical bslus, he entreated.

The participle ending in pa, ba, etc., is also used as a past; thus, shus-pa, he said; compare nyo-b, i.e., nyo-ba, boughtest.

Yin is often added to this form; thus, ong-wa yin, I have come; dung-ba-yin, I struck; son-pa-yin, he has revived.

The suffix song is added in forms such as dung-song, you struck, they struck; gal-song, wentest, went. Chung, became, is used in the same way in nyed-chung, he was found.

Another past tense is formed by adding up and doubling a final consonant; thus, gal-lup, we went; yot-tup, they were. In gal-lup-bin, I went, bin has been added to this form.

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Future.—The suffix of the future is yong; thus, ngas dung-yong, I shall strike. Shu-gyu-yin, I will say, literally means 'saying-for-is.' Chidub-bin, we should make (merry) is the same form as that just mentioned under the head of past time.

Imperative.—The imperative is regularly formed; thus, kon, put; so, eat; khur-shog, take-come, bring. Note the suffix in so-ro, make (me your servant).

Verbal nouns and participles.—The base alone is used as a verbal noun; thus, *tsho-la*, in order to feed; *tor-rung*, throwing-though, though he wasted; *si-na*, saying-in, if you say.

A conjunctive participle is formed by adding $n\ddot{a}$, or ni to this noun; thus, $dung-n\ddot{a}$, having beaten; khur-ni, having taken.

Another verbal noun is formed by adding gyu, compare classical rgyu. Thus, dung-gyu, to beat; che-gyu-la, to make; nga-la nor thob-gyu-di, me-to property getting-the, the property which I shall get.

The suffix pa, ba is used in the same wide way as in classical Tibetan. Compare phag-pai sa-wai sowas, pigs-by eaten husks-by, by means of the husks which the pigs ate; *thoi-pai*, on hearing.

The suffix gi in dung-gi nog, beating, has already been mentioned. It is identical with the i in di-nog, going.

The suffix up which has been mentioned under the head of past time, is also used to form a participle; thus, khi lag-pa-la yod-tup di gang yin, your hand-in being the what is? what is it that you have in your hand?

Negative particle.—The negative particle is a prefixed ma; thus, ma ter, he did not give; ma nang, didst not give. In compound tenses ma is inserted between the base and the auxiliary; thus, a-ring chhar-pa gyab-ma-song, to-day rain strike-not-went, it has not rained to-day. Ma is probably replaced by mi in the present and future.

For further details the student is referred to the version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son which follows, and to the list of Standard Words and Phrases on pp. 143 and ff.

[No. 13.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

TIBETAN.

SHARPA DIALECT.

(DISTRICT DARJEELING.)

Mi chig-la bu-jung nyi yot-tup. Bu-jung chhung-na de pa-ba-la Man one-to 80N8 two · Son were. younger` that father-to shus-pa, 'pa-ba lags, nga-la di goi-nang.' nor thob-gyu asked.'father 0, me-to property getting-for the divide-give.' Father-bu goi-bin. Mang-po nor ma-chhin bu-jung chhung-na nor te-ri property divided-gave. Much not-elapsed younger 80n property allkhur-ni yul thag-ring-po-la gal-song. \mathbf{Y} ul te-la nor te-ri chod-pa laking country far-to went. Country that-in property all behaviour ngan-pa che-ni tor. Nor te-ri tor-tshar-ni mu-ge done-having threw. allbadProperty throwing-finishing-after famine chhen-po vul te-la chung-ni, kho lho-ba-lang-ni yul te-yi vul-mi country that-in happening, he reason-rising country that-of country-man bigchig-ki tsa-la phin-ni. kho shing-la phag-pa tsho-la yul-mi one-of near gone-having, that country-man field-in swine feed-to sent. Kho phag-pa-i sa-wai so-was rang-gi khog-pa kang-ga-kyang mi Those swine-by eaten husks-from belly fill-glad-though own man kho-la ma ter. Te-ni kho sus-kyang ten-sos-ni, 'ngai papa-la la-pa him-to not gave. Then he thought-restoring, 'my father-to workers yod-pa, mang-po-la sa-gyu mo-zed lhag-pa yang yod. Nga tog-ni shi. foodis, besides many-to alsomore is. I hungering die. papa-la di-da shu-gyu-yin, Nga lang-ni papa-i tsa-la do-yin, te-ni"papa arising father-of near go-will, then father-to thus say-will. "father lags, khyed tang nam-kha tung-du nyed-pa ched-pa-yin. Nga ta-nä heaven before and sin 0, done-have. I now-from os-pa med. Nga khyed-ki la-pa khved-ki bu-jung chig tang-da-wa so-ro." worthy not. Мe thy 80nthy servant one like make." papa-i dung-du Kho lang-ni gal-ni, kho thag-ring-po-la yod, kho-i arising father of near He gone-having, he distance-at was. his thong-ni chhong-ni pu-jung jing-ba-la sim-ni pu-ka-kyal-song. Te-ni father-by seeing jumping 80N neck-on holding kissed. Then

nam-kha tang khyed-ki tung-tu nyed-pa ngas 'papa lags, pu-jung-gi, thee-of before sin 'father and 0. me-bu heaven son-by, khyed-ki pu-jung-gi os med,' shus-pas, tes yog-po-tsho-la, papa che-ni son-of worthy not,' saying-on, father that-by servants-to, done-having thee-of 'chhu-ba tshang-ma si-na le-mo chig khur-shog lag-pa-la kon; put; hand-on goodone bring ring, than 'cloth allkid-po chidub-bin. Te-ni peu gya-mo chig se-ni kang-pa-la katsa yang kon. one killing merry make-should. Then calf fatput. boots also nga-i pu-jung shi-ni. son-pa-yin; tor-ni. yang di Gang-la si-na. this died-having, alive-is; lost-being, also 8011 saying, my si-ni kyid-po ched-pa. nved-chung. found-became,' saying merry made.

ong-ni khang-pa-i shing-nä log-ni tsa-la te Tang u-ju the field-from returning coming house-of And elder-brother near shap-ro thoi-pai yog-po chig ked-tang-ni, dam-nyeng tang lep-pa tang and dancing hearing servant one call-giving. arrived and music kang yin?' di. Yog-pus, 'khyod-ki ton-dag nu-o leb-ni. what is?' asked. Servant-by, 'thy younger-brother coming, this reason log-pa-i peu gya-mo se-ni papas kho natsa med-pa ton-la father-by he sickness without returning of sake-for calf killing feast fat tang-song.' Kho di thoi-ni tshig-pa sos-ni khang-pa-la ma doe. Papa-ti He this hearing anger eating house-into not went. Father-the thon-ni bu-jung-la chhi-la Pu-jung-gi, 'papa, lo di-dzo lue. ngas 'father, me-by years so-many outside coming 80**n-**to enticed. Son-by. Khyed-ki ngai tog-po kyid-po che-gyu-la khved-ki ka ma gal. thee-of word not transgressed. Thee-by making-for my friends merry ra-thug chig ma-nang. Khyed-ki bu-jung di yang nor te-ri goat-young one even net-gavest. Thee-of 80N this property allma-le che-ni peu gyag-pa nang.' tor-rung, kho-la Papas. behaviour not-good doing threw-though, him-to gavest. Father-by. calffat khyo-rang nga 'pu-iung. tang nyam-bu yod. Nga-la khyod-ki kang yod, · 8011, thou and with art. Me-to whatme is. thine vin. Khyod-ki nu-o di shi-ni. son-pa-yin; tor-ni, nyed-pa Thee-of younger-brother this died-having, alive-is; lost-being, found kyid-po ched-pai OS vin.' being-by merry making-of worthy is?

PÄNJONG-KÄ OR BHÖTIĀ OF SIKKIM.

The northern half of the State of Sikkim is inhabited by a tribe of Tibetan race which is said to have immigrated from Tsang. They speak a dialect which is closely related to the dialects of Central Tibet, but which has also, in some respects, struck out independent lines of its own. More recent immigrants from Tibet speak the Lhasa dialect.

Sikkim is the Gurkha name of the State. The indigenous denomination is $D\ddot{a}$ -njong, i.e., rice-district. The Rev. Graham Sandberg, who has written a manual of the characteristic Tibetan dialect of the State, has therefore proposed to call it $D\ddot{a}$ -njong- $k\ddot{a}$, the language of Dänjong.

According to information collected for the purposes of this Survey the number of speakers was said to be about 20,000. This estimate is, however, far above the mark, and at the last Census of 1901 the returns under the head of Sikkim Bhōṭiā were as follows:—

											To	TAL	•	8,82 5
													•	
Manbhum	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	1
24-Parganas		•	•	• '	•	•	•	•		•	•	•	•	1
Darjeeling	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	٠	1,545
Sikkim	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	7,278

AUTHORITY-

Sandberg, Graham,—Manual of the Sikkim Bhutia Language or Denjong ké. Calcutta, 1888. Second edition, Westminster, 1895.

I am indebted to Mr. David MacDonald for a version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son in the Bhōṭiā of Sikkim. I have printed it in Tibetan type and in transliteration. The spelling of the Tibetan text is not phonetic but adapted to the practice of classical Tibetan. I have therefore added a phonetical transliteration in italics. It is based on indications given in Mr. MacDonald's transcript and on Mr. Sandberg's manual.

Pronunciation.—Final vowels are apt to be dropped. Compare pum, classical bu-mo, daughter; tem, classical legs-mo, good; nyim, classical nyi-ma, day; gom, classical sgo-mo, door, etc. It will be seen that the dropped vowel is in all these cases preceded by an m.

Initial soft consonants are pronounced with a strong aspiration, so that they sound like hard letters, with or without aspiration. Compare kyap, classical rgyab, beat; toi, classical dos, a load; pu, classical bu, son; phin, classical byin, give, etc.

The initial consonant of the suffixes pa, ba, po, bo, is often assimilated to a preceding consonant; thus, phak-ko, a pig; yok-ku, a servant; lak-ka, a hand; $\underline{ts}hil-lu$, fat. It is dropped after vowels; thus, ga-u, classical dga-ba, glad; $\underline{ts}e-o$, classical $\underline{ts}e-po$, basket.

Final g is pronounced as k; thus, lok-she, classical log-pa, to return. Sometimes, however, it is so indistinct as to be almost inaudible. Compare chi, classical gchig, one; nga-cha, classical nga-chag, we; chak-tha, classical lohags-thag, chain.

Final b is pronounced as p; thus, kyap, classical rgyab, beat.

Final d, n, and l modify the sound of a preceding vowel, a to \ddot{a} , o to \ddot{o} , and u to \ddot{u} . D and l, and occasionally also n, are dropped. Compare $k\ddot{a}$, classical skad, sound; $chh\ddot{o}$, classical khyod, thou; $sa-r\ddot{u}$, classical sa-rud, landslip; $ny\ddot{a}n-she$, classical nyan-pa, to hear; $s\ddot{o}$, classical gson, alive; $t\ddot{o}n-lo$, classical don-la, on account of; $tsh\ddot{o}n$, classical, tshon, colour; $d\ddot{u}n$, classical mdun, before; $g\ddot{a}$, classical, 'agal, transgress; $gy\ddot{a}-po$, classical rgyal-po, king; $ng\ddot{u}$, classical dngul, silver, etc.

Final s is dropped, and the preceding vowel is modified in the same way as in the case of final d; thus, nä, classical nas, barley; ngö, classical dngos, real. Sometimes also final s is changed to i; thus shei, classical shes, know; toi, classical dos, a load; thui, classical khrus, bath. In go-pe, classical dgos-pa, it is necessary, it is simply dropped.

The preceding vowel is probably lengthened; compare $di-ky\tilde{i}$, by him, classical adi-is.

Safter consonants is simply dropped, and the preceding consonant is treated as final; thus, lep, classical bslebs, arrive; tok, classical ltogs, hunger; sung, classical gsungs, called. Tik-chhi, pity, corresponds to classical thugs-rje, and is apparently incorrect.

Compound consonants containing a subscribed y as second component in classical Tibetan are commonly retained if the following vowel is a, i, or e. Y is, however, in such cases often dropped. It should be noted that e and ya are often interchangeable. Compare kyi-po, classical skyid-po, merry; kil-tu, classical dkyil-tu, in the middle; khim, classical khyim, house; khek, classical khyags, ice; kyap, classical rgyab, beat; kel-she, classical sgyel-ba, put on; phye, classical phyed, half; phya, classical bya, bird; phya and be, classical byed, do, etc. Sometimes, however, such compounds are changed to the palatal corresponding to the initial component; thus, $chk\bar{o}$, classical khyod, thou; chil-bu, classical spyil-po, hut.

As regards compounds ending in r, kr, khr, and gr are apparently regularly changed to ky, khy, gy, respectively. Compare kyok-she, classical dkrog-pa, to churn; kya, classical skra, hair; gyo-ma, classical grog-ma, ant; khyak, classical khrag, blood. We also find the common change into cerebrals; compare dib-ma, classical grig-ma, shade; dik-e, classical 'agrig-pa, it is enough. In the specimen we find gra, classical sgra, sound; note also ro, classical grogs, assistance.

Other compounds ending in r are regularly changed to cerebrals; thus, te, classical dre, mule; den-she, classical dren-pa, to pour; di-she, classical 'adri-ba, to ask; thel-tik, classical phral-grig, ready; the-lo, classical phred-la, across; $d\ddot{a}$, classical 'abras, rice; tak, classical brag, rock, etc. Note phugu, classical phrugu, child; trin, classical sprin, cloud; $d\ddot{u}n$ -tra, classical bdun-phrag, week, etc.

Sr become s; thus, sap-chak, classical srab-lchags, bit; sek-she, classical sreg-pa, burn; sim-pa, classical srin-bu, leech.

Zl become d; thus, da-u, classical zla-ba, moon. Other compounds ending in l become l or lh; thus, lep and lhep, classical sleb, arrive; $lh\delta-she$, classical glod-pa, to loosen.

In other compounds the first component is dropped; thus, kang-pa, classical rkang-ps, foot; gyap, classical rgyab, back; je-she, classical rjed-pa, forget; ta, classical rta, horse: tok, classical ltogs, hunger; ke, classical ske, neck; gom, classical sgo-mo, door;

chi, classical gchig, one; ser, classical gser, gold; da-nyi, classical bda-ba, to drive; go, classical mgo, head, and so forth.

Article.—The numeral chi, one, is used as an indefinite and the pronoun di, this, as a definite article.

Nouns.—The inflexion of nouns in most characteristics agrees with the Tibetan of Lhasa. The suffix la of the dative is, however, pronounced lo; thus, khim-lo, to the house. The suffix of the genitive is kyi, ki, or, if the word in classical Tibetan ends in a vowel, i; thus, khim-kyi or khim-ki, of a house; phya-i or phye, of a bird. The suffix kyi, ki is, however, often also used after vowels. The case of the agent is formed by lengthening the final i of the genitive.

The suffixes of the plural are cha and tsho or tshu.

Adjectives.—Adjectives follow the noun they qualify. The particle of comparison is, $l\ddot{a}$, from, i.e., the suffix of the ablative; thus, \underline{tsim} phi-di $g\ddot{u}n$ -lä tho-bã, peak that all-from high-is, that peak is the highest.

Pronouns.—The following are the personal pronouns:—

nga, I	chhö, thou	kho, khu, he
$nga-k\bar{\imath}$, by me	chhö-kī, by thee	khoyī, khö, by him
nge, my	chhō-kyi, thy	khoi, his
nga-cha, we	- chhö, you	khong, kho-cha, they.

Other pronouns are di, this, that; d-di, this; te, phi-di, that; ka, ke, who? kan, what? etc.

Verbs.—The verb substantive is usually in or yin in the first person, and $b\ddot{a}$, $p\ddot{a}$, or $m\ddot{a}$, in the second and third. Other bases such as du, $y\ddot{o}$, etc., are also used.

Present time.—The usual present tense is formed by adding do or do-in in the first, and bä or do, do-bä, to-bä, in the second and third persons; thus, nga sa-do-in, I eat; nga shi-do, I die; kho dü-to-bä, he sits; chhö ta-ring tsang mam tam-pä, you to-day clean very look. In the second and third persons du or bä are also often added to a participle ending in chen; thus, khu ong-chen-du, he is coming.

Past time.—A common past tense is formed by adding <u>zhe</u>, che, or jhe; thus, phi<u>zhe</u>, he wrote. A past is also formed by adding <u>song</u>; thus, shi-song, he died. Du or <u>zhe</u>
can be added; thus, phi-song-du, he has written; shi-song-du, he did die.

In the Parable the past is usually formed by adding the verb substantive to a participle ending in po, bo, u; thus, yö-po-mä, they were; thop-po-in, he is found, I found him; be-u-in, I made; shu-u-mä, he said, etc.

Future.—The usual future is formed by adding the verb substantive to the verbal noun ending in she or nyi; thus, nga thung-she-in, I shall drink; kho thung-she-bā, he will drink.

Imperative.—The base alone is used as an imperative; thus, sa, eat. Words such as tang, nang, nya, chuk, mä, etc., can be added; thus, to <u>tso-tang</u>, cook food; lam di ten-nang, please show the way; gyop bä-mä, be quick; be-chuk, make. Note bya-ge, let us make (merry), where ge corresponds to classical Tibetan dgos, it is necessary.

Verbal nouns and participles.—The usual verbal noun is formed by adding she or nyi; thus, kap-she or kap-nyi, to cover. Nyi is common in the Darjeeling district. The classical verbal noun ending in pa, ba, etc., is of course also used.

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The most common relative participle is formed by adding khen; thus, chhö tasong nyo-khen om di nga-lo nang, you this-morning bought milk the me-to give, give me the milk you bought this morning. In the Parable we also find the usual classical relative participle ending in pa, etc.; thus, nga-lo thop-she yö-pai kyu-chha, me-to to-be-got being goods, the goods which I shall get.

Conjunctive participles are formed by adding ti, di, etc.; thus, song-ti and song-di, having gone.

Negative particle.—The negative particle is a prefixed ma in the past and imperative, and a prefixed mi in the present and future. The negative is usually inserted before auxiliaries; thus, ma lap, don't say; phin ma che, he did not give; ong-nyi m-in, he will not come; kho shi-ma-song, he has not died; mang-gä, classical ma 'agal, I did not transgress.

Interrogative particle.—The interrogative particle is bo, mo, or o; thus, chhö song-bo, did you go? chhö luk phidi tshong-she-mo, will you sell that sheep?

For further details the student is referred to Mr. Sandberg's Manual and to the version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son which follows. An incomplete list of Standard Words and Phrases based on Mr. Sandberg's Manual will be found on pp. 143 and ff.

[No. 14.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

TIBETAN.

Pänjong-kä Dialect.

(Mr. David MacDonald and Major Waddell, 1899.)

(Sikkim.)

।। भेगाठेमार्थेनुमार्भेशम्पेन्येन्स्ना। मिट्मार्श्यमीत्राम्यस्ट्रिस्मीस्यात्रान्तिम् षाचे । टार्से वेच ने प्रन्यते मुंक गुः ब्रेट टार्स मन्दा। षाचे दिन गुंज दहें कर्या है हैं से वर्ग वन्तर मनुपार्चिद्वाता । १९९६ त्यसाल्याकार याँ सार्वेद्धात्तीत् सुद्धार्थे प्रदेश सुन्द्रात्तीत् सुन्द्रात्तीत् सुन्द ध्ययवग्रेटम्बेन्य्स्टि । छिन् विमुन्देगु प्रकेष्ठश हुन् ये अभिन्य ये वेसन् वक्ष मन्द्र ये हुन्। अर्ग । १९९९ तम् स्ट्रिंस्य स्ट्रिंस्य स्ट्रिंस्य स्ट्रिंस्य सम्बर्धित स्ट्रिंस्य । स्ट्रिंस्य सम्बर्धित स्ट्रिंस्य । स्ट्रिंस्य सम्बर्धित स्ट्रिंस्य । स्ट्रिंस्य सम्बर्धित स्ट्रिंस्य । नक्षरामिरुक्तिक्षराम् न्यास्त्रीत् । देनित्तमाम्प्रिर्क्तिश्चानप्राम् न्यास्त्रीत्राच्यास्त्रीत्राच्यास्त्रीत् क्षेणानीयदामुर्वे अभवेषा । ध्रिन्दित्यक्षामुद्रवाम् दिन्द्रेत्यव स्ट्राह्मद्रा द्वेष्य यदे स्राह्मद्राम्याणु सदःसिक्षिदिन्तिन वात्र ने सिन्दिन्तिन विष्य स्पेत्। दान्निन सन्तिन दिन्दि स्प्रिक्तिन स्पेत्र स्तिन स्पेत्र स् र्शेट ने होन लु ने प्येता प्याचे । ट गुरुष द्वारा प्राप्त ने प्राप्त होन ग्री ने प्राप्त होन ग्री ने प्राप्त होन ग्री ने प्राप्त होने ग्री ने प्री ने प्राप्त होने ग्री ने प्री ने प्राप्त होने ग्री न व्यवर्त्राचें सेत्। देरें त्री मुर्चे यदि मुर्भेना गुमि हैना दृदु चेत् यह मा। । स्रे दिने वस मुर्ने दिस दे मु ष्यायदे इ ते वे दि ते क्षेत्र । । प्येन उदाष्याणीक्षाम् मना दे दारे वे वेदारे । क्षेना के दे सकेंद्र का वेदारे मिणी भ्रेलियमन्त्रन्तिमुन्नेदःभ्रत्। देवणुर्यामुलिदुःभ्रत्। ष्याच्। मणुर्यवसम्मत्त्रन्तिक्तुःभ्रुस्तुवृत्ति इमार्गो नेतु भेता रायसम्बेर्ग गुनु समार्थे संभेता । भेत्र द्वारा संस्ति गुन्म स्रामे मिल्ला मिल्ला मिल्ला स्रामे स्राम स्रामे स् मुश्रुद्रश्चर्ने क्रियम् वस्य उर् यस्य यस्य दिन्। । मुर्के क्रिक्र देव। यम् मार्के सहिन क्रिम् किना रूटः मिनेदरक्तिन्द्रियार्थेन । निमित्तं क्षेत्रिन्दिन् के सर्वा पद्धमासामिति।।

[No. 14.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

TIBETAN.

Pänjongkä Dialect.

(STATE SIKKIM.)

(Mr. David MacDonald and Major Waddell, 1899.)

TRANSLITERATION AND TRANSLATION.

Mi	gchig-lo	bu gnyi	s yod-p	o-smad.	Khong	-gnyis-kyi	nang-las	chhung-sho
Mi	chi-lo	pu nyi	уö- <u>1</u>	00-mä.		g-nyi - kyi	,,	chhun g-sho
Man	one-to	sons two	w	rere.	Th	em-two-of	among-from	• •
'adi-kyis	khu-ri-l	cyi a-pa	-lo zh	uu-smad,	°a-po,	•		ie yod-pai
di - ky $\bar{\imath}$	khu-ri-k	kyi a-pa	-lo sh	u-u-mä,	' a-ро,	nga-lo		v -
the-by	his	father	r-to	said,	father,		get-to	. being
rgyu-chh	a-kyi ske	eu nga-lo	gnang.	_	po 'adi-		-	'a <u>ts</u> ho-chhas
kyu-chh	a-i ke	u nga-lo	_			kyī kh	u- ri - kyi	<u>ts</u> ho-chhä
goods-of			give.'			-b y	his	living
khong-tsh	u-lo bgo	-bsha-brgy	ab-bo-sm	ad. T	e-'adi-las	s zhag n	nang-po n	na song-bai
khong- <u>ts</u> h		go-sha-kya					rang-po n	a song-wai
them-to)	division-sha	re-made.		That-from	days	many i	ot going-of
'ajug-lo	bu chhu	ng-sho 'a	di-kyis	thams-ch	ad m	nyam-po		yul
juk- lo	pu chhi	ing-sho	di-kyī		ä n	nyam-po		yü
after	-	_	the-by	all		together		ing country
thag-ring	gchig-lo	$\mathbf{song} ext{-}\mathbf{di}$						ma legs-po
thak-ring	chi-lo	song-di		khu-ri-	kyi <u>ts</u> i	ho-chhä	pyö-po	ma le-po
far	one-to	gone-having		his		living	behaviour	not good
bes-di b	rlags-btan	g-bo-smad.	Kh	u-kyis tl	hams-cha	d brlags	- <u>ts</u> ha-u-da	o-na yul
$be ext{-}di$	lak- $tang$	-bo-mä.	K	hu - $yar{\imath}$	tham-ch	-	t <u>s</u> ha-u-da	o-na yü
done-having	destroy	-gave.	H	im-b y	all	destr	oyed-when	then country
o-'adi-lo	mu-gu	sbom-po	\mathbf{gchig}	thon-pe	o-smad.	\mathbf{Te}	khu za-si	he med-pa
lpha- di - lo	mu- gu	bom-po	chi	thon-	bo-mä.	Te	khu 8a-81	
that-in	famine	big	a	occt	rred.	And	he eatin	g without
lu-po-sma	ad. Te-	'adi-las	khu so			•	yul-mi	gchig da
lu-po-mà	$i.$ $T\epsilon$	e-di-lä	khu so	ng- di		li-kyi		chi ta
left-was.	Th	at-from	he gone	e-having cor	int ry th	at-of	inhabitant	one with
chhags-di	i sdod-po	o-smad.	Mi	adi-kyis	khu	phag-ko		•
chhak-ti	dö-p	0- m ä.	Mi	di-kyī	khu	phak-ko	tä-p a	•
joining	liv	ed.	Man	the-by	him	pigs	feed-to	his

zhing-lo	btang-bo-smad.	${f Te}$	khu	phag-ko	'adi-	<u>s</u> hu-gyis	1 ·		
shing-lo	tang-bo-mä.	Te	khu	phak-ko		shu-yi	za-bai	pa-kog	za-di
field-to	sent.	And	he	pigs		the-by	su-wai	pa-kok	su- di
khu-ri-ky	i pho 'agang	-bar d	ga-u-sr				enten	husks	eating
khu-ri-ky			ga-u-n			a-gi-yang			bin.
. his	belly filling		glad-wa		Man	a-gi-yang		ma	phin.
O-'adi-las		-gso-di	lded	lab-po-s		anyone	him-to	not	gave.
$ ilde{A}$ - di - $l\ddot{a}$		-so-di	de	lap-po	-	'ngai	a-pa-i	gla-tho	
That-from		ecovering	thus	sai	-	nga-i	α - $p\alpha$ - i	la-tho _l	
gyog-ku	•		za-she			'nıy	father-of	Wages-g	-
yok-ku			sa-she	A I. A		hag-she	yang	yod.	Nga
servants	-	any-to	ent-to	<i>yö-po-</i> being-ir	-	hak-she	yang	yö.	Nga
ltogs-di	shi-do. Ng		gs-di			save-to	also	is.	I
tok- di	shi-do. N	-	g-di		-pa-i	sku-mdu		ng-di	lded
hungering	die. I	•		-	- pa - i other-of	ku-dün		ng-di	de
zhu-she-yi	n, "a-po, ng	a-kyis				presence-t	6	having	80
shu-she-ir		a kjis . ga-kī	nam-k	~	•		ku-mdun	~ ***	ig-ko
say-will,		me-by	heaven	nn.1	cnne thee		ku-diin-lo		k-ko
be-u-yin.	Da-las-pha	-					presence-in		sin
be-u-in.	Ta-lä-pha	chhö-			os-po		Nga		l-kyi
done-is.	Now-from	thy	nyo	pu lap	· Ö-1)0 worthy	me.	Nga	chh	ö-kyi
gla-thob-p	ai gyog-ku	gchig	'adrau	J	-		Me		ıy
la-thop-pa	. .	chi	tau	be-chui	_	O-'adi			gs-di
wages-getting	•	one	like	make.		Á-di-	,,,,		y-di
khu-ri-kyi	a-pa-i r <u>ts</u> a-l	o song-	-bo-sma	_	1-rung	That-fr			sing
khw-ri-kyi	a-pa-i tsa-la	Ç	-bo-mä		r-rung	a-pa-kyi		thag-ri	
his	father-of near		ent.		8-1-101119 But	a-17a-ī father-by		thuk-vit	
ong-bo m	thong-di stig-c	hhi-di (s	<i>ic.</i>) m	chhongs-se	•	_	him	distance	
ong-bo ti		chhi-di	•	chhong-sor		khu-kyi		Pham-l	-
coming se	en-having	pitying	•	run-gone-havi		<i>khu-i</i> his	ke-lo	pham-l	
di kl	u skycu-smad	. T e	bu-k				neck-on	embrace-s	
	hu kye-u-mä.	Te		•		t-u-smad, m-n-mä,	ʻa-po,	**	
having h	im kissed.	And	4	by him-to		said,	'a-200,		
nam-mkha	dang chhod-	kyi ski	u-mdur		o be-u	•	father,	me	
nam-kha	tang chhö-}	_	u-dün-l				a-las-plia		
heav en	and thee-of		before	sin		.0-010. <u>1</u> .0-is.	la-lä-pha Now-from		
bu lab	os-po med.'	Yin-1	ung s	a-po 'ad	i-k y is	khu-ri-k		thy	
	. ö-po me.'		-		-kyī	khu-ri-k	- 400 (-ko-tsh	u-lo
son to-say	worthy not-am.'	Br	-	father tl	ie-by	his		ko- <u>ts</u> hu	-lo
gsungs-bo-s		tham	s-chad-		_	eg-shog,		ervants-to	_
sung-bo-n	,		m-chä-			k-shok,	khu-lo	gon-b	
called,	'eloth		all-from	good		ring,	khu-lo him-to	kön-b	
	mdzug-rkyi go	chig da	ng rk	ang-pa-lo	lham	gon-bin.		put-o	
lak-ka-lo	•		-	a ng- pa-lo	lham	kön-bin		nga-c	
hand-on	ring		nd	feet-on	shoes	put.			ha
•						P.c.s	And	We We	

za-di sems-skyid-po 'adi zam bya-ge; nga-i bu shi-di. log gson-po yin; sa-di sem-kyi-po di8am bya-ge; nga-i2026 shi-di. lok **г**ö-ро vin: eating mind-merry make-should; food my son this died-having, again/ alive is; kho be'ang song-di log thob-po-yin. Te khong-tshu skyid-po bed-nyi khobeang song-dilok thop-po-in. Tekhong-tshv. kyi-po be-nyi he lost gone-having found-is. again And they merry make-to mgo-btsugs-ko-yin.

go-dzuk-ko-in. began.

O-di-tshi

khu-kyi

bu

rgan-po zhing-lo yod-po-smad. Khu ongs-di Â-di-tshi khu-i kan-po ЮU shing-lo yö-po-mä. Khu ong-di Now his son elder field-in He was. coming bo-log bslebs-po dang khu-kyis 'achham-rkyab-po khyim-gyi sgra-snyan dang bo-lok khim-ki khu-yī lep-po tang gra-nyan tang chham-kyap-po house-of near-back coming with him-by sound-well-sounding and dance-making Te nang-las gchig bo-di. 'adi-kyi don khu-kyis gyog-ku tho-po-yin. Tekhu-yī yok-ku nang-lä chi bo-di. 'di-kyi dön tho-po-in. calling, 'this-of meaning heard. And him-by servants in-from one dri-u-smad. \mathbf{Te} khu-kyis khu-lo lab-po-smad, 'chhod-kyi nu-bo gam-mo? 'chhö-kyi nu-wo kam-mo?' Tekhu-yī khu-lo lap-po-mä, ti-u-mä. what-is P asked. And him-by him-to 'thy said, younger-brother chhod-kyi a-pa-kyis khu-lo gzugs-bzang-po thob-pa-i ngs-bo-yin, te don-lo chhö-kyi a-pa-kyī khu-lo zuk-zang-po ong-bo-in. thop-pa-i tön-lo tecome-is, thy father-by him-to body-good found-being-of account-on and mgron gchig btang-bo-yin.' Tekhu rtsig-ko za-di nang-sha rgyu-nyi tang-bo-in. Te khutsik-ko sa-di chi nang-sha gyu-nyi ma ton eating And he inside go-to given-is." anger not feast one don-lo khu-kyi pang-kha ongs-di khu-lo dga-u-smad. O-'adi-kyi a-po Á-di-kyi tön-lo khu-yi pang-kha ong-dikhu-lo a-po ga-u-mä. his father outside coming wished. That-of account-on him-to Te lan-btab-di khu-ri-k**y**i a-pa-lo zhu-u-smad. lhu-u-smad. khu-kyis Tekhu-yī län-tap-di khu-ri-kyi a-pa-lo shu-u-mä. lhu-u-mä. father-to his And him-by answering said. entreated. chhod-lo nga-kyis 'gzigs-dang, lo mang-po 'adi-dzod-chig zhabs-phyi chhō-lo - di-dzö-chi nga-ki shap-phyi 'zik-tang, lo mang-po so-much me-by you-to servant years many ·lo, Yin-rung-sum-po nga-kyis chhod-kyi bka nam-mo mang-ge. zhu-u-yin ; Yin-rung-sum-po nga-kī chhö-kyi kanam-mo mang-gä. shu-u-yin; Yet your word not transgressed. me-by AVAT worked: chhod-kyis be-ba-i don-lo skyid-po nga-lo rogs-ku-tshu mnyam-po nga-ri-kyi tön-lo chhö-kyī ng a-lo be-wa-i rok-ku-tshu nyam-po kyi-po nga-ri-kyi with merry making-of sake-for you-by me-to friends my chhod-kyi bu 'adi chhem-tshu Yin-rung gnang. nam-mo ma gchig ra-gu dichhō-kyi pu chhem-tehu Yin-rung chinam-mo ma nang. ra-qu SOM this harlots But not your gave. kid one ever

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dang tang	chhod	v	o-chhas	za-di sa-di	log lok	ongs-bo		chhod- chhö-l	•	mgron <i>don</i>
with	your		ing	eaten-havin		coming	immediately	you-b	y	feast
gchig	•	ng-bo-smad.	${f Te}$	a-pa-k	yis !	khu-lo	gsungs-bo	$\operatorname{-smad},$	ʻbu,	chhod
chi		ıg-bo-mä.'	Te	a- pa - y	ī	khu- lo	sung-bo	-mä,	$^{\circ}$ pu ,	$chh\ddot{o}$
one		given-is.	And:	father-b	yì	him-to	said,		'son,	you
nga	dang	mnyam-po	a-tang-	ma-chha	d you		-	yod-po		is-chad
-	tang with	nyam-po together	_	-ma-chhā ways		; nga-	_ 7	yö-po being		m-chä all
chhod	l-ri-kyi	_	Nga-	chag s	sems-d	lga-di	skyid-po	\mathbf{bed}	os-po	yin.
chhö-	- <i>ri-kyi</i> urs	<i>mä.</i> is.	Nga W	- <i>cha</i> 'e 1	<i>sem-g</i> mind-gla		kyi-po merry	<i>be</i> to-make	<i>Ö-po</i> proper	yin. is.
Chho		nu-bo nu-wo younger-brother	'adi <i>di</i> this	shi-di, shi-di, died-baving,	log lok again	gson-po sö-po alive	yin; yin;	be'ang-s beang-s lost-gone		
thob-	po yi									

[&]quot;Forwarded with the compliments from the Ministry of Eduction, Covernment of India."

LHOKE OR BHŌṬIĀ OF BHUTAN.

The Tibetan word *lho* means 'south' and also denotes the State of Bhutan. An inhabitant of Bhutan is called *Lho-pa*, and his dialect *Lho-ke*, or probably more correctly *Lho-kä*, classical Tibetan *Lho-skad*, Lho-speech. Another name of Bhutan is *Duk-pa* from Tibetan 'abrug-pa, a sect of Lamas established in Bhutan, and hence Lhoke is sometimes called Dukpa Bhōṭiā.

The Lhoke dialect is a form of Tibetan closely related to that prevailing in Sikkim. Outside the State of Bhutan it has also been reported from some of the districts within the scope of this Survey. During its preliminary operations it was returned from the following districts:—

Darjeeling .		•	•	•							_		2,000
Jalpaiguri .		•		•				_	•		•	•	2,148
Kuch Bihar		•		•						•	•	•.	131
Sikkim .	•	•		•	•	•			•	•	·	:	800
										To	TAL	•	5,079
		_											
he correspondin	ıg :	figures	at	the la	st C	ensus	of I	L901	were	as fo	ollow	/s :	-
Bengal Presidence	y	•		•		•	•						7,294
Calcutta	•	•	•	•	•			•	•	٠,		3	-,
Dinajpur	•	•		•	•	•					8	1	
Jalpaiguri	•	•		•	•						4.	768	
Darjeeling	•	•		•			•					504	
Tipperah		•		•							-,	1	
Champaran		•	•			•						3	
Bhagalpur				•	•							3	
Sontal Parga	nai	в.										2	
Kuch Bihar		•		•								2	
Sikkim	•	•	•		•		•	•	•	•		7	
Ajmer-Merwara	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	3
Assam .	•	•	•		•	•	•	•	•				1,654
United Provinces	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	٠	29
										To	ra t.		8,980
							•					•	2,500

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—On the Chēpāng and Kūsūnda Tribes of Nepal. Journal of the Asiatic Society of Rengal, Vol. xvii, Part ii, 1848, pp. 650 and ff. Reprinted in Selections from the Records of the Government of Bengal. No. xxvii, Calcutta, 1857, pp. 150 and ff., and in Essays on the Languages, Literature, and Religion of Nepal and Tibet. London 1874, Part ii, pp. 45 and ff. Contains a Lhopa vocabulary.

Beames, J.,—Outlines of Indian Philology, with a map shewing the distribution of Indian Languages.

Calcutta, 1867. Appendix A contains numerals in Lhopa.

HURTER, W. W.,—A Comparative Dictionary of the Languages of India and High Asia. London, 1868. Campbell, Sie George,—Specimens of Languages of India. Calcutta, 1874, pp. 142 and ff. Vol. III, Part I.

A version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son and a list of Standard Words and Phrases in Lhoke have been received from Darjeeling. The remarks on Lhoke grammar which follow are entirely based on them, and their correctness depends on the reliability of the materials.

Pronunciation.—The Lhoke dialect possesses the vowels \ddot{a} , \ddot{o} , and \ddot{u} , i.e., the sounds of \ddot{a} in 'hair' and of \ddot{o} in German 'bös' and of \ddot{u} in German 'Sünde' respectively. The marking of these sounds is, however, very inconsistent. I have restored them as best I could in the Parable following the indications of the original manuscript. It is, however, very probable that some mistakes have crept in.

Final vowels are often dropped; compare bum, classical bu-mo, daughter; kam, classical skar-ma, star; byap, classical bya-pho, cock. When the final vowel of the suffixes ba, bo, etc., is dropped its initial consonant is usually assimilated to the final consonant of the base in various ways; thus; phab, classical phag-pa, swine; dum, classical rdung-ba, beating; im, classical yin-ba, being; shab, classical bshad-pa, telling, etc.

Soft initial consonants are apparently pronounced with a strong aspiration so that the actual sound is almost that of the corresponding hard consonant. Compare bha, classical ba, cow, in Hodgson's vocabulary; ghyob, classical grod-pa, belly; ghyong, classical grong, village. The soft initials are often preserved in the specimens, or else they are replaced by the corresponding hard sounds; compare bu-teho, child; zhing, field; tü, classical dus, time.

Final soft consonants are hardened; thus, *chik*, classical *gchig*, one; *lok*, classical *log*, return; *khyot*, classical *khyod*, thou. The soft sound is, however, often retained in writing; thus, *mig*, eye; *geb*, back. This is always the case when a vowel is dropped after the consonant. Compare the examples quoted above.

Final d, n, l, and s modify a preceding a, o, and u, so that they become \ddot{a} , \ddot{o} , and \ddot{u} , respectively. Final s is always, final d commonly, and final l and n sometimes, dropped. Thus, gyet, i.e., $gy\ddot{a}t$, Hodgson gye, classical rgyad, light; $d\ddot{o}t$ and $d\ddot{o}$, classical sdod, sit; $lh\ddot{o}t$, classical lhod, to loose; $lh\ddot{o}n$, classical lhod, arise, happen; $lsh\ddot{u}n$, classical lshun, till; $lh\ddot{a}l$ -lhod, to loose; $lh\ddot{o}n$, classical lhod, silver; lhod, classical lhod, share; lhod, classical lhod, silver; lhod, classical lhod, share; lhod, classical lhod, silver; lhod, classical lhod, share; lhod, classical lhod, classical lhod, share; lhod, classical lhod, classical lhod, share; lhod, classical lhod, classical lhod, classical lhod, classical lhod, share; lhod, classical lhod, share; lhod, classical lhod, classical lhod, classical lhod, classical lhod, share; lhod, classical lhod, classical lhod, classical lhod, classical lhod, classical lhod, share; lhod, classical lhod, classi

The original vowel sometimes remains unchanged or is followed by an i; thus, go, classical dgos, it is necessary; goym, classical rgod-mo, mare, etc.

Final r is occasionally dropped; thus, sey, classical gser, gold; $\underline{ts}ha$, classical $\underline{ts}har$, finish.

Compound consonants of which the last component in classical Tibetan is a subscribed y are left unchanged; thus, khyöt, classical khyod, thou; gyu-tshan, classical rgyu-mtshan, reason; bya, a bird. Y is, however, often dropped before i and e; thus, bili, classical byi-li, cat; be, classical byed, do; geb, classical rgyab, back.

There are also some instances of the change of such compounds into palatals which is so common in connected forms of speech; thus, chhot and khyöt, thou; long-chöt, classical longs-spyod, enjoy.

R after gutturals is replaced by y; with other consonants it coalesces into a cerebral; thus, kya, classical skra, hair; ghyob, classical grod-pa, belly; ghyong, classical

grang, village; dhug, classical drug, six; de, classical 'adre, devil; da, classical ddra, like; di, classical 'adri, ask; thuk, classical phrugu, young.

Sr remains unchanged; thus, sring-mu, sister.

Zl becomes da; thus, dau, classical zla-ba, moon.

In other compounds the first consonant or consonants are dropped. Compare lang, classical glang, bull; che, classical lche, tongue; zim-pön, classical gzim-dpon, servant; na, classical sna, nose; nang, classical gnang, give; yok, classical gyog, work; kang-pa, classical rkang-pa, foot; zhi, classical bzhi, four, etc.

Article.—The numeral *chik*, one, is used as an indefinite, and the demonstrative pronouns *di*, this; *de* and *te*, that, as a definite article.

Nouns—Gender.—Gender is distinguished by using different words or by adding affixes such as pho, male; mo and ma, female; thus, lang, bull; ba, cow: pho-khyi, a dog; khyi-mu and mo-khyi, a bitch: ra-pho, a he-goat; ra-ma, a she-goat.

Number.—The usual suffix of the plural is <u>tsu</u>, classical <u>tshogs</u>, multitude; thus, yok-be mi-<u>tsu</u>, work-doing man-multitude, servants.

Case.—The case suffixes are, broadly, the same as in Dänjongkä; dative lo, lu or la; ablative lä, nä; locative na; terminative r, tu, etc.; genitive kyi, ki, gyi, gi, i, etc. The case of the agent is written like the genitive; the final vowel is probably long. The i of the genitive and agent is sometimes contracted into one sound with a preceding vowel. Compare mi chik-lu, to a man; za-nor-lä, from the property; shi-za-nä, from death's place; khyim-na, in the house; tsa-r, near, to; ap-tsu-gi, of fathers; ser-kyi, of gold; abpai, by the father; bui and bū, by the son.

Adjectives.—Adjectives follow the noun they qualify. The particle of comparison is the ablative suffix $l\bar{a}$; thus, *khui nuchung di sring-mu di-lä thowat*, his brother the sister the-from tall-is, his brother is taller than his sister.

Pronouns.—The following are the personal pronouns:—

nga, I khyöt, khyö, chhot, chho, .kho, khu, he thou

ngä, by me chhoi, by thee

nga-i, ngä, my khyöt-kyi, khyoi, thy kho-i, khu-i, his

nga-chag, we khyöt-teho, you khong, khong-teho, they

nga-chā, nga-chagi, our khong-gi, their

Other pronouns are di, this; te, de, aphi, that; gag, who? ga-chi, gang-chi, what? and so forth.

Verbs.—The conjugation of verbs is broadly the same as in Danjong-ka.

The verb substantive is formed from the bases in or yin; yot, yöt, or yö; bet or bä, mä; wat or wä, pä. The bases bet, etc., are apparently formed from the suffix ba, pa, etc., by adding id (-yod), which is in its turn dropped after having changed the preceding a to ä.

Present time.—A present tense is formed by adding do or do-yin; thus, gyo-do-yin, (I) go; gyo-do, (thou) goest. Do is perhaps contracted from dao; compare nga dum-dao-yin, I am beating. Compare also the verb substantive gda-ba in Khams.

Instead of yin we sometimes find wat added; thus, kho gyo-do-wat, he goes; comparetho-wat, he is tall. Compare Baltī and Ladakhī at. The base yot (i.e., yöt or yö), is, is also added in order to form a present; thus, dot-yot (i.e., $d\ddot{o}t$ -y $\ddot{o}t$), he is sitting. It can also be added to a form ending in ni; compare the suffix nyi of the verbal noun in Pänjong-kä. Thus, za-ni-y $\ddot{o}t$, they eat.

The base alone is also used as a present; thus, nga dung, I strike.

Past time.—The simple base, or the past base, is commonly used as a past tense; thus, kye, classical skyes, he became; song, he went.

A common past tense is formed by adding various forms of the verb substantive to a verbal noun or participle, which must originally have ended in pa, ba, or wa. The final vowel of this participle is usually dropped, and the initial sound assimilated to the preceding sound in various ways. Compare nga dum-yin, I went; be-u yim pä, made become-is, has been made; shab-mä, said; nyo-yin, boughtest. In the last example the verb substantive is perhaps added directly to the base. The same is the case in forms such as song-yi, went.

The participle alone is used in forms such as di-wa, asked; nang-wa, gave, if the final vowel of such forms is not properly an \ddot{a} .

Song is used as a suffix in tha-song, he became.

Note also compound forms such as dum <u>ts</u>ha-di yin, beating having-finished am, I had beaten.

Future.—The common future is formed as in Dänjong-kä by adding yin to a verbal noun ending in ni; thus, dung-ni-yin, I shall strike. The common Tibetan suffix ong is also used; thus, kho dung-ong, he will strike. Nga thä-gyu, I shall be, contains the suffix gyu corresponding to classical Tibetan rgyu, matter, cause.

Imperative.—The base is often used as an imperative; thus, gyo and song, go. Suffixes such as chik, shok, etc., can be added; thus, gyo-chik, go; bak-shok, bring.

Verbal nouns and participles.—The base alone is used as a verbal noun; thus, za-rung, eating-though, though he ate. The most common suffix is ba, pa, or wa, which is modified in the usual way. Thus, zhu-u-zhin-tu, saying-according, as he said; tsho-wa, to feed; muge thön-pa tang, famine arising with, when a famine had arisen; im-lä, being-from, because he is; song-wa-i, going-by, when he had gone.

The same form is also used as a relative participle; thus, nga-lu thob-pa-i kälva, me-to getting-of share, the share which I shall get.

Conjunctive participles are formed by adding di, te, nä, wä, etc.; thus, dung-di-gi, having beaten; bak-te, carrying; len-nä, taking; song-wä, going, etc. Note also zer, saying.

Negative particle.—The negative particle is a prefixed mi in the present and future, and a prefixed ma in the past and imperative; thus, zhego bin-mi mi-n-duk, food givingman not-is, nobody gives him; mi-go, it is not wanted; zhum ga-ni ma-ya, good-behaviour any not-did; \underline{tsib} ma za, anger not eat, don't be angry.

Interrogative particle.—The classical form ending in am occurs in gang-chi bedo-yin-nam, what do they do? The characteristic interrogative of the dialect is, however, probably mo; thus, gag-i bu-tshu ong-bo-mo, whose boy coming-is? whose boy is coming? Mo is probably the interrogative verb substantive as in Pänjong-kä, though it is not usual in Tibetan to add interrogative verbs or particles if there is an interrogative pronoun.

For further details the student is referred to the version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son which follows, and to the list of Standard Words and Phrases on pp. 143 and ff. It should be remarked that most of the rules laid down in the preceding pages are subject to exceptions, usually in such a way that the language of Tibetan literature, which is also used in Bhutan by the educated classes, has influenced the writer

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

TIBETAN.

LHOKE OR BHÖTIA OF BRUTAN.

(DISTRICT DARJEELING.)

Mi chik-lu bu nyī yö-pä, bu chhung-ku đē ab-lu lo-gyu Man one-to sons two being. younger the-by father-to subject 80M 'ab-pai za-nor-lä nga-lu thob-pai kälwa gob-sha-chab-nang.' shab-mä. having-told, 'father-of properly-from me-to getting-of portion divide-split-cut-give,' lab-zhin-tu kho-rai za-nor kälwa chhung-ku-ki len-nå said-as his-own property share taken-having younger-by 80n thak-ring-sa chik-lu song. tä chab-chha-ka hak-te νü bum carried-having country far one-to went. then thinas women dö-te za-nor tang chab-chha-ka ga-yöt-ra nyam-tu tã. a-ro-ga-ro-tsu living then and things what-was sweethearts with property ül-po lak-te kho-rang du-thä the-kha-ra me-par tha-song. anything not-being squandered-having he poor there became. di-kha yang mu-ge thön-pa tang kha-thuk-chab-nä lung-pa Di-i gang-lu This-of meantime-in country this-in also famine arising with Тä. de-lä kho za-wa to me, kab-pa go . me. yü cloth -Then covering not. that-after eating food not, he country gyuk-te song-wä za-wai sem-no-te mi chiki zhan-kha yok tsar work doing eating-of mind-making-up going one-of other man near tö-pa tang $\mathbf{m}\mathbf{i}$ de-i. 'nga-i sa-zhing-kha-lu phab tsho-war song. field-in-to when man that-by, 'my pigs feeding-for go,' staying kho phab tsho-war song-wä, di-i tshe kho-kha zer-lap-pä, he pigs feeding-for having-gone, having-said-told, this-of time him-of be-ma-tshu-par chok-thak-pa kom-to-kye, phab 88 to-put-up-not-able-being-on pigs like thirst-hunger-grew, earth kho-lu zhe-go man-tshöt-man-pa no-döt-rung long-nä za-rung bin-mi unfit-not thought-though ate-though him-to food turning giver sem-lu. Yang kho-rai 'rang-gi a-pai tsa-lu yok-be-mi-tsu mi-n-duk. my-own And his mind-in. father-of near servanta not-was. nyin-za-tü zhi bab-lhöt-me-pa za-ni-yöt. Ta nvin-re-lu nga day-food-times four neglecting-without feeding-are. Now I daily a-pai gyo-go-pa, no-te song-wai, kho lok-ong-wa tsar lok-te returning father-of near to-go-wanted-is,' thinking going, him back-coming

thong-te apai sem-lu bu-lo dik-chhi-te bu-i ke-lu apa-ki seen-having father's mind-in son-to pitying80n's neck-on father-by di-lä apa-lu lab-mä, 'ta tshün nam-kha pham-tab u-kvel. Τä bu-i And then son-by father-to having-said, 'now till embraced kissed. heaven apai tha-kha-lu rang-gi zhum gani ma-ya. Ta tang nga. myself-by good-behaviour any not-did. and father-of before NowI. "apai in," zer shat ngo-yang-tsha,' si-te lab-pä, bu "father's am," to-say to-declare ashamed,' 8aying 80N having-said. 'bu mi-go.' kho-ra-i zim-pön-lu ab-pa-ki, ngo-tsha yang ab-pa-i 'son shamefulness not-wanted,' again father-by his-own father-by, servant-to chik tang sha-mo le-zhib ka-sä nang-wa, 'go le-zhib chik. ser-kvi 'cloth goodand hat order $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$ gave, goodα. gold-of chik, lham-chha dzu-kyi-chha chik tön-te bak-shok.' Ka nang-wa Order finger-ring-pair shoe-pa**ir** a taking bring. α, zhin-tu kap-gö-bä, yong-nä zab-tö-tik-dik-te tä pha-bu nyi put-on-clothed-having, come-having clothed-having then father-son two be-go-pai gyu-<u>ts</u>han, bu dzom-pai ga-tsho be-wä; di di shi-sa-nä made; this making-of joy reason, son this dead-place-from biang-sa-lä lok-pa-tang da-wo: heb-tang da-wo im-lä. like; lost-place-from found-with returning-with likebeing-from.

Τä di-i gang-lu pho-gem te zhing-kha-lä lok-ong-wa-i khyim And that time-at brother-elder the field-place-from back-coming house bo-lo-kha te-i lhö-pa-tang khyim nang-lu lu-ga zhe-ga tsim-tsi-wai within singing dancing the-of near coming-when house playing-of wur-da go-nä pho-gem te-i khyim-tsang-mi chik-lu di-wa. 'khvim hearing elder-brother the-by noise neighbourone-to asked, 'house gang-chi be-do-yin-nam? nang zer-wä. 'khyö-rai nu-wo-chung te doing-are?' having-said, what 'your-own younger-brother the lok-lhö-pai ga-tshor-zhi-len be-u yim-pä,' khyim nang zer-shat-pä, in back-coming-of joy-feast made is,having-said, thereupon pho-gem te tsib za-nä khyim nang gyo ma tub-par elder-brother the anger eating house intonot to-go willing-being döt-tang-wä, ab khyim nang-lä ong-te te bu gan-pa-i lak-pa-lä having-remained, father the house from coming 80% elder-of hand-by zung-nä, 'khyöt khyim nang gyo-chik,' tsib-ma-za: zer-lap-pä, bü. anger-not-eat; house seizing, 'you intohaving-said-told, son-by, go, 'ta-tshun tha-kha apa-i sem-ma-set-pa-lu ga-tä dak-dak ' now-till father-of against mind-not-offending-in in-every-way best bā-bin-rung, nga-i to-tshang ga-thün-tsu "dza-chum tang, chik doing-giving-though, my friends companions with, " feast one

za-chik," be-te lo-ma-pho. zer ra-thuk chik yang eat," making saying goat-young one even were-not-pleased-to-give. Tha-re-bä-tshe khyöt-kyi bи za-nor chab-chha-ka mang-rab-zhig But-now your 80n property things many zhang-tshong-ma lak, tang nyam-tu döt-te ta-rung kho ngo-tsha-nö harlots with together living wasted, and he shamefulness met-pa lok-ong-wa tsam-lu zhe-go mang-rab lak phang-sem me-pa without back-coming whenfeast great frugallly without spent bu, tön-me. go-pa-i Apa bu di-i lan-lu. khyöt necessity-of cause-without.' Father the-of 80B answer-in, ' 80n, you nga tang chha-te döt-pa-lä nga-i za-nor yöt-tshat khye-rai with being-attached living-from always me my property allyour-own Khyo-rang ga-tä in. ga-ga be-te ong-chöt. Khyöt-kyi nu-wo-chung Yourself in-any-way merry is. feast. younger-brother making Your shi-sa-lä te lob-tang biang-sa-lä heb-tang da-wä. da-wo: the dead-place-from returned-with like-is; lost-place-from found-with like-is. Ta-lä khyö-rang pun-chha-tsu chham-tok-tok be-te phar döt.' Now-from onward you brothers friendship doing live.

KHAMS DIALECT.

The eastern division of Tibet, between the province of Ü and China, is known as Khams or Khams-yul. It extends from the frontier of China to about 95° east longitude. We are not sufficiently informed about the dialect spoken in Khams, and it does not fall within the scope of this Survey. It is, however, of considerable interest and it will therefore be useful to collect some information about it in this place. The Rev. H. A. Jaeschke has long ago published a short specimen which will be reproduced below.

AUTHORITIES-

JAESCHKE, H. A.,—Über die Phonetik der Tibetischen Sprache. Monatsberichte der Königlich Preussischen Akademie der Wissenschaften zu Berlin. Aus dem Jahre 1867, pp. 148 and ff.

A Tibetan-English Dictionary with special reference to the prevailing dialects. To which is added an English-Tibetan Vocabulary. London, 1881. The introduction contains notes on Tibetan dialects.

The Khams dialect in two important points agrees with Western as against Central Tibetan. There is no tone system and the various compound consonants are not so generally simplified as in Central Tibetan.

Phonology.—The vowels i and u are changed to e and \ddot{o} , respectively; thus, teb-rel, classical tib-ril, tea-pot; $w\ddot{o}$, classical bu, son.

The two vowels in a, and a 'a are distinguished in Khams. The former is the vowel a pronounced with the audible opening of the throat which is indicated by means of the spiritus lenis in Greek and the Hamza in Arabic. 'A is the mere vowel without that audible opening. In Khams it has developed into a gh, the soft sound corresponding to the hard ch in German 'doch'; thus, ghar-po, classical 'ar-po, angry; ghug-pa, classical 'ug-pa, owl; gho-ma, classical 'o-ma, milk; ghod, classical 'od, light, and so forth.

The pure vowel 'a is often used as a prefix before consonants. In such cases it has developed into the nasal corresponding to the following consonant; thus, ngkhol-ba, classical 'akhol-ba, to boil; nggul-wa, classical 'agul-ba, to move; nychham-pa, classical 'achham-pa, to agree; ndod-pa, classical 'adod-pa, to like; mphur-wa, classical 'aphur-ba, to fly, etc.

The vowels of the base are sometimes modified by a following consonant, not however to the same extent as in Central Tibetan.

U becomes \ddot{u} before d and n; thus, $l\ddot{u}d$, classical lud, manure; $k\ddot{u}n$, classical kun, all.

A is changed to e before ng; thus, kheng-pa, classical khang-pa, house.

Before s, a is changed to e, o to \ddot{o} , and u to \ddot{u} . Final s is dropped and the vowel lengthened; thus, $kh\ddot{e}$, classical khas, with the mouth; $g\ddot{o}$, classical gos, cloth; dt, classical dus, time.

Initial non-compound consonants are mostly left unchanged. The initial b of classical Tibetan is, however, changed to w; thus, wa, classical ba, cow; $w\ddot{o}$, classical bu, son; $w\ddot{o}$ -mo, classical bu-mo, daughter.

Final s is always dropped, and the preceding vowel is lengthened; thus, rī, classical ris, form; gt, classical gus, respect. If s is preceded by a consonant, the preceding vowel is

only lengthened if the consonant in question is a g; thus, $n\bar{a}g$, classical nags, forest; $r\bar{s}g$. classical rigs, class; but pheb, classical phebs, came; tham-chad, classical thams-chad, all.

Compound consonants ending in a subscribed y in the literary dialect are left unchanged if the first consonant is a guttural, and become palatals if it is a labial; thus, kyeng, classical kyang, even; khye, classical khyi, dog; gyon-pa, to wear; chhag, classical phyag, hand, etc. By also becomes wsh.

Mute consonants and r become cerebrals; sr is replaced by the original str, and hr becomes shr; thus, them, classical khrims, right; $th\ddot{u}$, classical khrus, bath; don-mo, classical dron-mo, warm; $th\ddot{o}-g\ddot{o}$, classical phrugu, child; string-mo, classical sring-mo, sister; shrul-po, classical hrul-po, rags.

Compounds ending in l are treated in different ways. Gl is changed to ghl; bl to wl; zl becomes ld, and rl and sl remain unchanged. Thus, ghlog, classical glog, lightning; wla-ma, classical bla-ma, a Lama; lda-wa, classical zla-ba, moon; rleng-pa, classical rlangs-pa, vapour, steam; sla-mo, thin.

Try prefixed r, l, and s remain unchanged; thus, rkeng-pa, classical rkang-pa, foot; rnga, drum: rta, horse; lnga, five; ltad-mo, a sight; sna, nose.

Skr becomes shtr; sgr becomes zdr; spy becomes shw; spr becomes shtr; sb and sby become zu; sbr becomes d; smr becomes shn, and so forth. Thus, shtra, classical skra, hair; zdra, classical sgra, sound; shwod-pa, classical spyod-pa, action; shtre-gko, classical spreu, monkey; zual-wa, classical sbal-ba, frog; zuar-wa, classical sbyar-ba, to fasten; däng-wo, classical sbrang-bu, fly; shna-wa, classical smra-ba, to say.

A prefixed g becomes gh; the same is the case with the prefixed d; db becomes ghw, or w if a w follows; a prefixed b becomes v or b; and a prefixed m remains unchanged. Thus, ghdung-wa, classical gdung-ba, desire; ghser, classical gser, gold; ghyog-po and yog-po, classical gyog-po, a servant; ghkar-po, classical dkar-po, white; ghngul, classical dngul, silver; ghweng, classical dbang, might; wo, classical dbu, head; wug, classical dbugs, breath; ghwol-po, classical dbul-po, poor; vgo-wa, classical bgo-ba, to put on; vrgyad, classical bryyad, eight; vdun, classical bdun, seven; btom-pa, classical btum-pa, to envelop; mgo, head, etc. Note khehid, classical dpyid, spring.

For further details the student is referred to the short specimen which follows. It has been reprinted from the Rev. H. A. Jaeschke's paper mentioned above. The stress has been marked by means of a 'over the accented syllable.

[No. 16.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY, TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

TIBETAN.

KHAMS DIALECT.

H. A. Jaeschke, 1866.)

Wchom-ldan-da Dé-skad wdág-gī thö-pa. Dü chig-na Nyan-yód-na This-word myself-by heard. Time one-in the-Exalted-one Šrāvastī-in Rgyál-wö-rgyal-jéd-kye-tshal Nggon-med-zä-zwén-gye kün-ghga-rá-wa-na wzhug-so. Jetavana Anāthapindada's pleasure-grove-in Dī-tshé rgyál-po Ghsal-rgyál-la wlón-po chhén-po mkhä-pa rig-pa deng minister That-time Prasënajit-to great king greatknowledge with ldán-pa zhig yód-de, dĭ chhung-ma sém-chan deng ldán-par gyúr-nä possessed one being, hiswife child with be-to coming khyeu mtshan deng ldan-pa wshad-ghzúg lág-pa ghpe-wshad child marks with possessed shape-good goodsecondary-marks ldá-med-pa zhig btshä-te, mtshan-mkhan wö-nä wö wstán-pa incomparable one having-been-born, astroloyer called-having showing 80n deng mtshan-mkhan-gyī ghgá-wē mdang-kyi dé-skad ohī shpä-so. on astrologer-by look-with happy this-word thus said.

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

Thus I have heard. The Blessed one was once staying at Śrāvastī, in the Jētavana, in Anāthapindada's pleasaunce. Now at that time King Prasēnajit had a prime minister of great knowledge. His wife became with child, and a son was born who possessed all the lucky marks, great beauty, and all the secondary lucky marks. An astrologer was summoned, and when the child had been shown to him, he said with a happy look.

LIST OF STANDARD WORDS AND SENTENCES IN THE DIALECTS OF THE TIBETAN LANGUAGE.

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WOL, III, PART I.

LIST OF STANDARD WORDS AND SENTENCES

En	glish.			Ва	1# (B	altistān)).		Purik (Pu	rik).		Ladákhi (Ladakh).	
1. One .	•	•	•	Chik	•	•	•	•	Chik	•		Chik .		•
2. Two .	•		•	Nyīs	•			•	Nyls		•	Nyia .		
3. Three		•		Sum.	•	•	•		Sum			Sum .		
4. Four .	•	•		Ibzhi	•		•	•	Zhbi, sbyi .	•	•	Zhi .		
5. Five .	•			<u>Gh</u> a	•		•	•	Gha	•	•	Shnga; rga;	gha .	
6. Six .	•			Truk	•		•	•	Truk	•		Druk; ruk		•
7. Seven	•	•	\cdot	Rdun	•	•	•	•	Rdun		•	Rdun .		
8. Eight	•	•		Rgyat	•	•	•		Rgyat		•	Rgyat .		
9. Nine .	•	.•		Rgu	•	•	•	•	Rgū			Rga .		•
10. Ten .	•		•	Schü	•		•	•	Schü	•		Schu .		
11. Twenty	•	•	•	Nyishû	•	•	•	•	Nyī-shū .	•	•	Nyi-shu .		
12. Fifty	•	•	•	Ghafchu			•		Ghapchü .			Ngapchu		
13. Hundred	•	•	•	Rgyā		•	•		Rgii			Rgya .		
14. I .	•	•		Nga	•	•	•	•	Nga	•	•	Nga .		
15. Of me	•	•	٠	Ngi	•	•		•	Nga-ri, ngi .	•	•	Ngai, ngā		
16. Mine .	•	•	•	Ngi	•	•	•	•	Nga-ri, ngi	•	•	Ngai, ngä		
17. We .	•	•	•	Nga-yā	•	•	•		Nga-chi, nga-tan	g.	•	Nga-zha; ng	tang	
18. Of us.	•	•		Nga-yē	•	•	•		Ngiti, nga-chi .	•	•	Nga-zhä; nga	-tang-ng	ri
19. Our .	•	•	•	Nga-yē	•	•	•		Ngitl, nga-chi .			Nga-zhä; nga	-tang-ng	i .
20. Thou.	•	•	•	Khiang	•	•	•		Khye-rang, khyo	t.		Khyot; khyo-	rang .	
21. Of thee	•	•	•	Khye-ri	•	•	•	•	Khye-ri			Khyo-rang-ng	i; kh yo d	l-di
22. Thine	•		•	Khye-ri	•		•		Khye-ri			Khyo-rang-gi	, khyod-	đi .
23. You .	•	•		Khye-tar	g	•	• •		Khyen-tang .	•	•	Khyo-zha		
24. Of you	•	•	•	Khye-ti		•	•	•	Khyen-ti .		•	Khyo-zhä		
25. Your .	•	•	•	Khye-ta:	ıg-i, i	chye-ti	I	•	Khyen-ti.	•		Khyo-zhä	•	
140Tib	etan.													

Cen	tral D	Fialect (Sand	berg and Henderson).	
. W1	itten.			Spoken.	_
Gchig .	•	•		Chik	
Gnyis .	•	•		Nyi	• •
Gsum .	•	•	•	Sum , .	• •
Bzhi .	•	•	•	Shi	
Luga .	•	•	•	Ngä	• •
Drug .	•	•	•	Dhuk	
Bdun .	•	•	•	Dün	• •
Brgyad .	•	•	•	Gyä	
Dgu.	•	•	•	Gn	
Bchu .	•	•	•	Chu-thamba .	
Nyi-shu .	•	•	•	Nyi-shu	
Lnga-behu	•	•	•	Ngap-chu-thamba	• •
Brgys ·	•	•	•	Gys-thamba .	
Nga :	•	•	•	Nga	• •
Nga-i .	•	•	•	Ngä .	
Nga-i .	•	•	•	Nga	• •
Nga- <u>ts</u> ho	•	•	•	Nga-taho; ngan-taho	•
Nga- <u>ts</u> ho-i	•	•		Nga-taho-i .	
Nga- <u>ta</u> ho-i	•	•		Nga-tsho-i .	
Khyod; khye	đ	•	•	Kkyö; khye . `	
Khyod-kyi	•	•		Khyō-kyi .	. :
Khyod-kyi	•	•	;•	Khyö-kyi .	
Khyed-taho	•	•	•	Khye-tsho; khyen-ta	ho .
Khyed- <u>ta</u> ho-i	•	•	•	Khye-tsho-i	
Khyed-taho-i	•	•		Khye-tsho-i .	• •

	Spit	l (Spiti).		Kāg	ate (]	Darjee	ling).	
Chig		•:	•	•	Chik-	•	••		
Nyi .		•	•		Nyi .			•	
Sum		•	. •	•	Sum-	• ·		٠.	
Shi .	••	•	•	•	Tshi -	٠,	• ·	•	
Nga .	•	• •	:	•	·Nga •	•	••		
Duk .	•	•	•		Tuk -	•		•	
Dun .		• •	•		-Tin	•	•	•	
Gyat.		•	•	\cdot	.Ке.	•			
Gu.		• •	•		-Gu	•		•	· •
Chu .	• ·	•	•		Chu •	•			
Nyishu	• •	•	•		Nyi-shu	•	•	•	
Ngapchu		•	•	$\cdot $	Ngapehu .	ı		•	
Gya .	•	•	•		Gya tham	b a	•	•	
Ngã			•	\cdot	Nga •	, ,		•	
Ng≅ .		•	•		Nga-i-di .				
Ngä	•	•			Nga-i-di .			•	•
Nga-zha	•	•	•		Ngi-kya .		•	•	
Nga-shä			•	-	Ngi-kye-i-	dá	• •	•	
Nga-ahä		•	•	•	Ngi-rang-l	cye-i	·di	•	
Khynt	• '	•			Khyo .		•		
Kh y oi	•	•	•	•	Khyo-i-di	v	•	•	
Khyoi	•		•		Khyo-i-di			•	
Khyo-sha		•	•		Khyo-rang	•		•	
Shyo-zhä		•	•		Khyo.rang	-i	•		٠
Khyo-shë	1	•	,	. 7	Khyo-rang	i.			

IN THE DIALECTS OF THE TIBETAN LANGUAGE.

Shar	rpa (I	arjeel	ing).		Pānj	ongkā	(Sand	lberg).		Lhol	re (D	arjeel	ling).	,	English.
Chik	•		•		Chi	,	,	•		Chik .	 -	•	•		1. One.
Nyi	•	•	•		Nyi			•		Nyi .	•	•	•		2. Two.
Sum	•	•	•		Sum	•	•	•	•	Sum .			•		3. Three.
Shi	•	•	•	J	Zhi	•	•	•		Zhi .					4. Four.
Nga	•	•	•	•	Nga		•		•	Nga .		•	•	•	5. Five,
Ţuk	•	•	•	•	Ţuk	•		•		Phuk .			•	•	6. Six.
Dun	•	•	•	•	Duin	•	•	•		Dun .		•			7. Seven.
G ye	•	•	•	•	G _у е	•	•	•	•	Gyet .	,		•		S. Eight.
Gu	•	•	•	•	Gu	•	•	•	•	Gu .		•	•		9. Nine.
Chu	•	•	٠	•	Chu-than	be	•	•	•	Chu-thaml	28.	•	•	•	10. Ten.
Nyishu ;	khal-	jik	•	•	Khe-chik		•	•	•	Nyi-shu-th	amb	8.	•		11. Twenty.
Nga-chu		•	•	•	Ngabchu		•	•	•	Nga-chu-tl	aml	8	•	•	12. Fifty.
Gya	•	•	٠	•	Gya .	•	•	•	•	Gya-thamb	6	•	•	•	13. Hundred.
Nga	•	•	•	٠	Nga .	1	•	•	•	Nga .		•	•		14. I.
Nga-yi	•	•	•		Nge	•	•	•	٠	Nga-yi .		•	•	•	15. Of me.
Nga-yi	•	•	•		Nge .		• '	•	•	Nga-yi .		•	•	•	16. Mine.
Dak-pu	•	•	•		Nga-cha .		•	•		Nga-chak		•	•	•	17. We.
Dak-pu-y		•	•		Nga-chi .		•	•	•	Nga-chä .		•	•		18. Of us.
D ak- pu-y		•	•	I	Nga-chi .		•	•		Nga-chagi		ı	•	\cdot	19. Our.
Khyot			•		Chhō .		•	-		Khyot .			•	-	20. Thou.
Khyot-rai			•		Chhō-kyi		•	•		Kh yot-ky i			•		21. Of thee.
Chyot-ra:			•		Chhö-kyi		•	•		Kh y ot-kyi			•		22. Thine.
Khyot-ran			•		Chhō .		•	•	i	Khyot .					23. You.
Chyot-ran			•		Chhö-k y i			•		Khyot-kyi			•		24. Of you.
Chyot-ran	g-gi	•	•	- 0	Chhö-kyi .	•		•	•] 1	Khyot-kyi	•		•		25. Your.

English	b.			Bald	ī (Bal	tistan).			Puril	k (Pu	rik).	•		Ladik	hī (La	dakh).		
26. He	•	•	.	Khō .		•	•	. 1	Chō .	. •	•	•	K	lho .	•	.•		-
27. Of him .		•		Khō-i	,	•			Chu-rī, kh	5-ī .			K	Choi .	•	•	•	
28. His		•		Khō-i	•	•	•	- 1	Khu-rī, kh t	5-ĭ .			R	Thoi .		•		\cdot
29. They	,	•	\cdot	Khong, k	hō-ta	ng	•		Khong, kh	on-ta	ng .	•	Б	lho-gun				$\cdot $
30. Of them	•	•		Khong-i,	khō-	tang-i			Khong-i, k	hon-t	tang-i,	khun	- E	Cho-gun-r	ui.			\cdot
31. Their	•	•	\cdot	Khong-i,	khō-	tang-i		\cdot	Khong-i, khun-ti.		khon-	ang-i	F	Kho-gun-1	ui .			\cdot
32. Hand .	•			Lak-pa	•	•	•		Lakpa .		•	•	. 1	Lak-pa .	•			\cdot
33. Foot .	•	•	•	Rkang-m	ı n	•			Rkang-ma	•	•	•	. 1	Rkang-pa				\cdot
34. Nosc .	•	•	•	Snam-tal	ınl	•	•		Snam- <u>ts</u> hu	ıl	•	•	. 8	Sna .	,	• .	,	
35. Eye .	•	•	•	Mik	•	•	•		Mik .		•	•	. ?	Mik	•	•	•	
36. Month	,	•	•	Kha; kh	ıā-ko	r	•		Khā .		•	•		Kha	•	•	•	•
37. Teotn	•	•	•	So .	•	•	•		So .		•	•	-	So; so-gs		•		•
38. Ear .	•	•	•	Snã	•	•	•	•	Snā .		•	•		Nam-chho	k	•	•	•
3 9. Hair .	,	•		Go-real	•	•	•	•	Skrā		•	•	$\cdot $	Spu, shra	•	•	•	•
40. Head .	•	٠	•	Ġδ	•	•	•	•	Go .	•	•	•	\cdot	Go	•	•	•	•
41. Tongue	•	•	•	Lchē		•	•	•,	Lchē	•	•	•		Lche	•	•	•	•
42. Belly .	•	•	,	Ltó-a	•	•	•	•	Lto-a	•	•	•	•	Drot-pa;	phos		•	•
43. Back .	•	•	,	. Shul	•	•	•	•	Rgyap	•	•	•	\cdot	Rgyap	•	•	•	•
44. Iron .	•	•		. Lchakh	,5	•	•	•	Lchakha	•	•	•	•	Lchaks	•	•	•	•
45. Gold .	•	•		. Ser	•	•	•	•	Ser	•	•	•	•	Ser	•	•	• .	•
46. Silver	,	•		. Shmul	•	•	•	•	Shmul	•	•	•	•	Shmul;	mul	•	•	•
47. Father	•	•		. Ata	• •	•	•	•	Atā	•	•	•	•	A-ba	•	•	•	•
48. Mother	•.	•		. Amö	•	•	•	•	Amā	•	•	•	•	A-ma	•	•	•	•
49. Brother	•	•		. Kakā		lder);	pl	dno	Phō-nō	٠.	•	•	•	A-jo (eld ming-p female	o (b	roth er	ninge of	r); a
50. Sister	•	•		String string er.)	-mő ; g-mő	ashë tann-t	(eld sĕ (yo	er); ung	String-m			(elde	r),	A-chhe, (young of a m	ā-je (er) ; s	elder) ; ring-n	10 (<i>8</i> 1	ste
51. Man .	•	. •		. Mi	•	•	•		Mi	•	•	•	•	Mi			•	•
52. Woman	•	•		. Būstri	ng.	•	•		Вō-тō	•	•	•	٠	Bo-mo	•	•	•	

		C	entral	Dialect	(Sa	ardberg and Henderson).	_
			/ritten			Spoken.	
	Kho .		•	•		. Kho	
	Kho-i	•				. Kho-i	
	Kho-i					. Kho-i	
	Khong	<u>-ts</u> ho		•		. Khong-tsho	
	Khong	- <u>ta</u> bo-	i.			. Khong-tsho-i	
	Khong	- <u>+s</u> ho-	i.	•	٠,	. Khong-tsho-i	•
	Lag-pe	٠.	•			. Lak-pa	
	Rkang	pa.		•		. Kang-pa	
	Sna.		•			Na-khung	
	Mig .			•		Mik	.
	Kha	•		•		Kha.	
1	So .	• •		•		So	$\cdot $
]	Ras .	• .				Namohhok	.
	Skra .			٠.		Ta,	$\cdot $
J	Mgo .			• •		Go	
.1	Lche .	. •		•		Che	
.0	Frod spe	٠		•	•	Dhō-pa	
E	Rgyab	• •	• •		•	Gyap	
1	chags	•	•		٠	Chak; chā	
G	lser				•	Ser	
I	ngul	•		•	•	Ngül	
P	ha;.ys	b.	• •	•	٠	A-pha; yap	
M	la,	•	•			Ma	
	-jho. (young	(elde er).	r);	nu-l	00	A-jho; nu-wo	
S	ring-m nu-mo	0; a-c (youn	hhe ger).	(elder);	Sing-mo; a-chhe; nu-mo.	
M	ï	•	•	•	•	Mi	
B	ud-med	l	•	•	-	Bhū-me	
_					1	Miles I 2 A F	ì

	Spi	iti (Spit	i).		Kägate (Darjeeling).
Kho	•	•	•		Kho
Khoi					Kho-di
Khoi	•	•			Khodi
Kho-ba		•			Khung-kya .
Kho-bä	•	-	•		Khu-rang-rang
Kho-bä	•	•	•		Khung-kei-di .
Lak-pa	•	•	•	•	Lak-pa
Kang-pa		•	•		Kang-ba
Na	•	•	•	•	Na-sum
Mik	•	•	•	•	Mi
Kha.	•	•	•	•	Kha
So .	•	•	•	•	So
Nam-cho	k	•		•	Nam-jo
Sha	•	•	•	•	Та,
Go	•	•	•	•	Go
Che	•	•	•	•	Che
Pot-pa	•	•	٠	•	То-ра
Gуар	•	•	•	-	Куар
Chaks	•	•	•	•	Cha.
Ser	•	•	•		Ser
Ngul	•	•	•	$\cdot $	Ngul
A-pha	•	•	•		Δ-ba
A-ma ,		•	•		A-ma
A-cho .		•	•		No
Shring-m)	•	•		Nu-mu
di .		•	•	•	Mi
Bo-mo .		•	•	•	Pemi

Sharpa (Darjeeling).					njongk	ä (Sa	ndberg)).		Lhoke (Darjeeling).				English.
Kho .	•			. Kho	•		•		. Kho		•	•		26. He.
Kho-yi .	•	•		. Kho-i	•				Khoyi	i .		•		27. Of him.
Cho-yi .	•	•		. Kho-i	•				Khoyi			•		28. His.
Kho- <u>ts</u> ho	•	•		. Khong	; kho	-cha			Khong		•			29. They.
Kho- <u>fs</u> ho -y i	•			. Khong-	k y i				Khong	-gi		•		30. Of them.
Cho- <u>ts</u> ho-yi	•	•	,	Khong-	kyi	•	•		Khong	-gi				31. Their.
ak-pa .	•	•		Lak-ka			•		Lak-ps	٠.			•	32. Hand.
ang-pa	•	•		Kang-p	A.	•	•		Kang-	ps.				33. Foot.
a-khuk	•	•	•	Na.	•		•		Na.	•		•	•	34. Nose.
iik .	•	•	•	Mi-do	•	•		•	Mik	•	•	•		35. Еуе.
ha .	•	•		Kha	•	•	•	٠.	Kha	•	•	•		36. Mouth.
· .	•	•	•	So .			•	•	So.	•	•	•		37. Tooth.
a	•	•		Nam-cho	•	•	•	•	Namch	ok; n	2W2	•	$\cdot $	38. Ear,
	•	•	•	Kya	•	•	•	•	Kya	•	•			39. Hair.
· .	•	•	•	Go	•	•	•		Gu		•	•	\cdot	40. Head.
e-lak .	•	•	•	Che	•	•	•	\cdot	Che		•	•		41. Tongue.
ok-pa.	•	•	•	To-ko	•		•		Ghyop	•	•	•		42. Belly.
ap .	•	•	•	Gуа р	•	•	•	-	Gep.	•	•	•		43. Back.
.	•	• .	•	Chak	•	•	•	\cdot	Cha		•	•	\cdot	44. Iron.
	•	•	•	Ser	•		•	-	Sey	•	•	•		45. Gold.
ui.	•	•		Ngü	•	•	•	•	Ngũ	•	•	•	1	46. Silver.
ра	•	•	•	A-piro	•	•	•	•	Д р	•	•	•	. .	47. Father.
ma .	•	•	-	A-m o	•	•	•		Ayi	,	•	•	. 4	18. Mother.
n.,	•	•	•	A-cho ((younger	elder) ·).	; I	ogn-gy	a.]	Pünch ha		•	•	- 4	9. Brother.
i (<i>elder</i>) ; n ·).	u-mo	(you	rg-	A-ji (elde	r) ; n u	ım (y	ounge	r)	Azhim.	•	•	•	. 5	0. Sister.
•	•	•		N:		•	•	. 1	Æ i	•	•	•	. 5	il. Man.
-me .	•	•	•	Mobi .		.	•	. 4	lmisu	•	•	•	. 5	2. Woman.

	English			Baltī (I	Baltist	an).		Parik (Parik).	sdåkhï (Ladakh).
53. Wife .	•	, •		Zanzos ; chh	ug-m	ā.		A-nē	
54. Child.	·			Phrū .				Phru Thru-gu	
55. Son .	•	•		Bù, bā-tahā		•		Bū, bū-tahā Bu-taha	
56. Daugh	ær.	•	•	Bō-ngō .	•			Вд-тд Во-то	
57. Slave.		•		Byis-ba; sgō-	yāl	•		Yok-po; sgo-yal Gho-yal,	yok-po .
58. Cultiva	tor .	•	•	Chhun-pa	•			Chlun-pa Zhing-pa	; shing-dak
59. Shepher	rd.	•		Lurzi, luk-rz	i .	•	•	Ra-rzī, luk-rzī Rdzi-o;	luk-rdzi
60. God .	•	•		Khudā .	•	•	•	Khuda Kon-chh	ok
51. Devil	•	•	•	Shētān .		•	•	Shetan Rdut .	
52. Sun .	•	•	•	Nyi-ma .	•	•		Nyi-ma Nyi-ma	
3. Moon .	•	•		Lzod, ldzöd (== mo	on-lig	ht)	Lzaï-mō	
4. Star .	•	•	•	Skar-ma .		•	•	Skar-ma Skar-ma	
55. Fire .	•	•	•	Mē .	•	٠	•	Mē	
6. Water	•	•	•	Chhû .	•	•	•	Chha Chhu	
7. House	•	•	•	Nang. khang-	ma	•	•	Khang-ma, nang Khang-pa	·
8. Horse 9. Cow .	•	•	•	Rstā .	•	•	٠	Ratā Sta .	
0. Dog .	•	•	•	Bang .	•	•	•	Bā Ba-lang	· · · .
1. Cat .	•	•	•	Khyi .	•	•	•	Khyi Khyi	
2. Cock .	•	•	•	131-la .	•	•	•	Bi-la Bi-la	
3. Duck.	•	•	•	B"yā-pō .	•	•	٠	Воуп-ро	· · · ·
4. Ass .		•		Batik Bong-bu	•	•	•		ak; ngur-va .
5. Camel	•		'	Shuga-bong	•	•	•	Bong-bu Bong-ngu	
6. Bird .	•			Bü-u	•	•	•	Shnga-bong Shnga-bong	
7. Oo .	•	•			•	•	. •	Bi Chi-pa Chi-pa Chi-pa	
S. Eat	•			Zā-chus .	•	•		Guita-oney	(infinitive) .
9. Sit .	•		i	Duk-chas		•			• • •
				!- *	•	•	1	Duk-chas Duk-ches	

Cen	tral I	Dialect (Sand	lberg and Henderson).
Wri	tten.			Spoken.
Chhung-ma	•	•		Chhung-ma; kyē-men .
Phrugu .			•	Thugu; phugu
Bu .		•	•	Вът . , .
Bu-mo .			•	Bhu-mo
<u>Ts</u> he-gyog		•	-	<u>Ts</u> he-yok
••	••••			
Lug-r <u>d</u> zi	•		•	Luk- <u>lz</u> i
Dkon-mohhog	: •		•	Kön-chhok
'Adre	•	•	•	
Nyi-ma .	•	•	•	Nyi-ma
Zla-ba		•		Da-wa
Skar-ma			•	Kar-ma
Me .	•			Me
Chku				Chhu
Khyim .			٠	Khyim
Rta .		•	٠	Та
Ba .				Bha
Khyi .	•	•	•	Khyi
Zhi-mi .	•	•		Shi-mi
Вуа-ро .	•	•		Jha-po
Ya-tae .		•		Ya- <u>ts</u> e
Bong-bu	•	•		Pong-ghu
Rugu-bong	•		٠	Nga-bong
Bya.	•			Jhn
Song .	•	•		Soug
Zo .	• -	•		So
Sdød .			•	Dö

	Sı	oiti (Sp	iti).		Kigate (Darjeeling).
Jur	-mo.	•			- Chhung-ma
Th	a-gu (p	hru-g	u) .		Pi-za
Bu-	isa .	•			. Pn
Bu-	mo .	•			Po-mo
Go-	yal .	•			Yok-po
Shir	11-pa .		•		Shing
Dzi	·o .				. Karalu .
Kon	-ohhok		•		Sang-gye (=Buddha)
Dut	•		•		Hendi
Nyi-	ma .	•	•		Nyi-ma
Da-w	.	•			Da-wa
Kar-	ma ,				Kar-ma
Мо	•	•	•	,	Ме
Chhu		•	•		Chhu
Khan	1-p a	•	•		Khim
Ta	•	•	•		Ta-bu
Ba-lan	g .			•	Pa-laug
Khi	•	•			Khi
Pi-shi	•	•	٠	•	Guri
Ja-pho	•	•	•	$\cdot $	Cha-bu
Ngang	-pa	•	•		Hangea
Bum-k		•	*		Punggu
Nga-be	ng	•	•	$\cdot $	Ama-koma
Ja.	•	•	•		Cha
Song	٠	•	•		Song
Zo .	•	•	•	-	So
Dot	•	•		. :	re

Sharpa (Darjeeling).			, Dăi	ijon	gkä (Sand	iberg).		Lhoke (I	Parjeel	Lhoke (Darjeeling).				
Cher-mu				Khim-1	ne	•			Näm .	•	•		53. Wife.	
Pi-dza .	•	•		Phugu		•	•		Bu-tsho .				54. Child.	
Pu-jung .				Pa		•			A-lo .		•		55. Son.	
Pu-mu .	•	•		Pum		•			Bum .				56. Daughter.	
Yok-pu .	•	•	•	Yok-ku	•	•	•	•	Gyown .		•		57. Slave.	
Shing-tap-kh	en	•	•			*****			Zhing-la-pa	•	•		58. Cultivator.	
Luk- <u>ts</u> o-khen	•	•	•			*****			Luk- <u>ts</u> ho-mi		•		59. Shepherd.	
Kun-chok	•	•	•	Könchh	.0	•	٠		Lha .	•			60. God.	
Dut .	•	•	•			*** ***			Фе		•		61. Devil.	
Nima .		•	•	Nyim	•	•	•	•	Nyim			•	62. Sun.	
Dawa .	•	٠	•	Dau	•	•	•		Dau .		•	•	63. Moon.	
Karma .	•	•	•	Kam	•	•	•		Kam .		•	•	64. Star.	
MGe .	•	•	•	Mi	•	•	•	•	Mi .	•	•	•	65. Fire.	
Chhu .	•	•	٠	Chhu	•	•	•	•	Chhu .	•	•		66. Water.	
Khang-pa	•	•	•	Khim	•	•	•	•	Khyim .	•	•		67. House.	
Fa .	•	•	•	Та	•	•	•	•	Ta .	•	•		68. Horse.	
Chhung-ma	•	•	•	Bhachu	•	•	•	•	Bs.	•	•		69. Gow.	
Khi .	•	•	٠	Khyi	•	•	•	٠	Pho-khyi	•	•	٠	70. Dog.	
Ber-me .	•	•	•	A-lü; sl	im	•	•	•	Bili .	•	•	٠	71. Cat.	
Cha-bu .	•	•	•			•••••			Вуар .	•	•	٠	72. Cock.	
Dam-cha	•	٠	•			•••••			Dam-bya .	•	•	•	73. Duck.	
Pung-bu	•	•	•	Bong-gu		•	•	٠	Bom .	•	•	-	74. Ass.	
Nga-mong	•	•	•			••••			Ngamo-gyet-p	ı	•	٠	75. Camel.	
Dha-chhung-n	a	•		Phya	•	•	•	•	Bya .	•	•		76. Bird.	
yuk .	•	•		Song	•	•	•	•	Gyo .	•	•	-	77. Go.	
50 	•			Sa	•	•	•	•	Za, .	•	•	•	78. Eat.	
Oot .	•	•		Dö	•	•	•		Dot .		•		79. Sit.	

Englisi.			. Baltī (Baltista:	1).	Purik (Purik).	Ladākhī (Ladakh).
80. Come .	•		Ong-chas .		Yong-chas	Yong-ches
81. Beat .	•	•	Teang-chas .	•	Rdung-chas	hdung-ches
82. Stand .	•	•	Lang-shas .		Lang-shas	Langs-te duk-ches
83. Die	•		Shī-chas .		Shi-chas	Shi-ches
84. Give .	•	•	Min-chas .	•	Tang-chas	Tang-ches; sal-ches (re-spectful).
85. Run .	•	•	Rgyuk-chas .		Rgyuk-chas, bang tang- chas.	Rgyuk-ches
86. Up	•	•	Yar, khathok .		Kha-thot	Gyen, kha-thok
87. Near .	•	•	Nyē-bō		Nуб-mo	Nyc-mo
88. Down .	•		Thuru		Yok-pō, yok-la	Thur, yok-la
89. Far	•	•	Thagh-ring .		Thaghring	Thak-ring
90. Before .	•	٠	Dunu, shitī-a, dunc	uk.	Shiti-a	Dunla
91. Behind .	•	•	Rgyap-la .		Rgyap-na	Rgyap-la
92. Who .	•	٠	Sū	• •	sū	Su
93. What	•	٠	Сы	• •	Chi	Chi
94. Why .	•	•	Chi-phari; chi phar	es .	Chi-la	Chii-phi-la
95. And .	•	•	Nang, yang .	• •	Yang, nang, dang	Dang, yang
96. But	•	\cdot	Dō-in-na-sē, ama-ō	•, •	Ama-o, in-na-yang	Yin-na-yang (being-in-even)
97. If	•	•	-na		-na	-na
98. Yes	•	•	In, o-pgā.	• .	In, 5-na, yot, duk	O-na; yin; yot; duk .
99. No	•		Met, men, min-duk	•	Men, met, min-duk	Man; met
100. Alns .	•		La, le	•	Wa	Wa
101. A father .	•		Atā chik	• •	Atā chik	A-ba-zhik
102. Of a father	•		Atā chig-ī .	•	Atā chig-1	A-ba-zhig-gi
103. To a father	•		Atā chik-la .	•	Atā-chik-la	A-ba-zhik-la
104. From a father	•	\cdot	Atā chik-nā	• •	Atā chik-na	A-ba-zhik-nä
105. Two fathers	•		Atā nyīs		İ	A-banyis
106. Fathers	•		Atā-un, ata-rgun, ai	i-chōi.	Atā-gun	A-ba-gun , , ,
152—Tibetan						

i		Centr	al Dia	lect	(Sandberg and Henderson).	
	W	ritten.			Spoken.	
Shog	•	•	•		. Shok	
Rdung		•	•		Dung	
Long	•	•			Long	
Shi		•	•		. Shi	
Ster		•	•		. Ter	
Rgyug		•	•		Gyuk ,	,
Yar	•	•	•		Yar	
Nye-po		•	•		Nye-po	
Mar	•.	•		•	Mar	•
Thag-rin	g-po	•	•	•	Thak-ring-po	
Gdong-la		•	•	•	Dong-la; ngan-la	
3zhug-la		•	•	•	Zhuk-la	
Su	•	•	•		Su	•
dang; g	1-70 ;	chi	•	•	Ghang; gha-re; chi	
lang-la		•	•	•	Ghang-la	•
ang .		•	•	•	Dhang	•
n-kyang		• .	•	•	Ön-kyang	•
īa	•	•	•	٠	Na .	•
ags .		•	•		La	٠
lin .	ı	•	•		Min	\cdot
	••••	•••			*** ***	
-pha zhi	g		•	•	A-pha shik	$\cdot $
-pha-i .		•	•		A-pha-yi	
-pha-la	•	•	•	$\cdot $	A-pha-la	$\cdot $
pha-nas	•	•	•	\cdot	A-pha-nä	$\cdot $
pha-gny	is ,	•	•		A-pha nyi	•
					A-pha-taho	

		Spiti (£	Spiti).			Kāg	ate (De	rjeelin	g).	
	Shok	•	•	•		Sho		• ·	•	
	Dung	•				Rop-che		•		
	Long		•	•		Long	•	•		•
	Shi-tong		•	•	•	Shi	•	•	•	•
	Tong			•		Nang				
	Gyuk.	•	•	•	•	Chhong	•			
	Khan-tol	k	•	•	•	Tho-la		•		
	Nyi-mo		•	•	•	Tha-ma	•	•		,
	Yo	•	•	•	•	Cha-la	•	•	•	•
	Thak-rin	æ	•	•	•	Tharing-	bu	•	•	~
	Dun-nä	•	•	•	•	Nge-la		,	•	•
	Gупр-пä	•			•	Ting-la	•		•	,
	Su.	•		•		Su.				
	Chi	•	•		•	Chi	•	•	•	•
	Chi-la	•		•	٠	Che-la	• •	•	•	
	Yang	•	•	•	•	Yang		•	•	•
	Yin-kya	og	•	•	•	Lap-na	•		•	
	Yang-na	1	•	•	•	Lap-ken,	lap-si	ing, la	p-na	•
	O-na	•	•		•	Yin		•	•	•
	Man	•	•	•		Min	•	•	•	•
		•••	•				••••	•		
	A-pha sh	ik	•	•		A-ba chil	ĸ	•	•	
	A-pha sh	i g- gi	•	•		A-ba chil	r-i-di		•	
	A-pha sh	ik-la	•	•		A-ba chil	c-la	•	•	•
	A-pha sh	ik-n ä		•		A-ba sale		•	•	•
	A-pha n	r i	•	•		A-ba nyi		•	•	•
	A-pha-gr	un	•	•		A-ba-kya		•	•	•
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Shi	rpa (Darjee	ling).		D änje	ong	kā (Sand	berg).		Lhoke (Darjeel	ling).		English.
Shok	•	•	•	•	Shok	•	•	•	•	Shok .			•	80. Come.
Dung	•	•	•		Tip .		•	•		Dung .		•	•	81. Beat.
Lang	•	•	•				•••			Long .		•		82. Stand.
Shi	. •	•	•		Shi .	•	•	•	•	Shi .	•	•		83. Die.
Bin	•	•	•	•	Phin	•	•	•	-	Byin .	•	•	•	84. Give.
Gyuk	•	•	•	•	Chhong	•	•		•	Chhong .	•	•	•	85. Run.
Yar	•	•	•	•	Yaki	•	•	•	•	Tak-li .	•	•	•	86. Up.
<u>Ts</u> a-la	• .	•	•	•	<u>Ts</u> aka	•	,	•		Bo-lo .	ŧ	•	•	87. Near.
Mar .	•	•	•		Mar	• .	•	•	•	Ma	•	•	•	88. Down.
Thak-ri	g-bo	•	•	•	Thak-ring	3	•	•	•	Thak-ring	•	•	٠	89. Far.
Dong-la	, gán	g-la	•	•	Hen-lä	•	•	•	•	Ngan-lä .	•	•	•	90. Before.
Gyap-la	•	•	•	•	Se-lo	•	•	•	•	Shū-ļā .	•	•	•	91. Behind.
Su	•	•	•	•	Ka ,	•	•	•	•	Gak-me-po	•	•	•	92. Who.
Gang	• .	•	•	•	Kan .	•	•	•	٠	Ga-chi-mo	•	•	•	93. What,
Gang-la	•	•	•	•	Kambe	•	•	•	•	Gan-chi-bewo	•	•	•	94. Why.
Ta-rung	• .	•	•	•	Ta-rung	,	•	•	٠	Tarura .	•	•	•	95. And.
Yin-ṇa-	ang	•	•	•		•	*** 4**			Ying:rung	•	•		96. But.
-na .	•	•	•	•	-nä; nu	•	•	•	٠	Gal-te .	•	•	٠	97. If.
Yin .	•	•	•		Las	• .	•	•	•	Yin .	•	•	•	98. Yes.
Min	•	•	•	•	Mem-ba;	m	en.	•	•	Men .	•	•	٠	99. No.
A-kha		•	•	•	•		*****			Akha .	•	•	•	100. Alas.
Papa ch			•		A-pho ch			•	•	Ap chik .	•	.•	•	101. A father.
Papa chi			•		A-pho-i			•		Ap chigi	•	•	٠	102. Of a father.
Papa chi					A-pho-lo			•		Ap chik-lo		•	٠	103. To a father.
Papa chi		•	•		A-pho-nä			•	•	Ap chik-lä	•	•	٠	104. From a father.
Papa ny	i	•	•	İ	A-pho-ny			•	٠	Ap nyi .	•	٠	•	105. Two fathers.
Papa-jal	10	•	•		A-pho-tah	10	•	•	•	Ap-tau .	•	•		106. Fathers.

English.	Balti (Baltistan).	Purik (Purik).	Ladākhī (Ladakh).
107. Of fathers.	. Aton-i (i.e., ata-un-i), ato- ngun-i.	Ata-gun-i ·	A-bargun-ni
108. To fathers.	. Atō-ngun-la	Atā-gun-la	A-ba-gun-la
109. From fathers .	. Atō-ngun-nā	Atā-gun-nā	Aba-gun-nä
110. A daughter .	Bo-ngō chik	Bō-mō chik	Bo-mo-zhik
111. Of a daughter .	. Bo-ngō chig-I	Bō-mō chig-l	Bo-mo-zhig-gi .
112. To a daughter .	. Bo-ngō chik-la	Bō-mō chik-la	Bo-mo-shik-la
113. From a daughter	Bo-ngō-chik-nā	Bō-mō chik-nā	Bo-mo-zhik-nā
114. Two daughters .	Bo-ngō nyis	Bō-mō nyis	Bo-mo nyis
115. Daughters	Bo-ngō-ngun	Bō-mō-gun	·Bo-mo-gun
116. Of daughters	Bo-ngō-ngun-I.	Bo-mo-gan-i	Bo-mo-gun-ni
117. To daughters .	Bo-ngō-ngun-la	Bō-mō-gur-la	Bo-mo-gun-la
118. From daughters.	Bo-ngō-ngun-nā	Bō-mō-gun-nā	Во-то-дин-па
119. A good man.		Noro mi-chik	Mi rgyal-la zhik
120. Of a good man .	Leagh-mö mī chig-I	·Noro mi-chig-i	Mi rgyal-la zhig-gi
121. To a good man		Noro mi-chik-la	Mi rgyal-la zhik-la
122. From a good man		Noro mi-chik-nā	Mi rgyal-la shik-nă
123. Two good men		Noro mi n yis	Mi rgyal-la nyia
125. Of good men		Nörö- mi-gun ; rgyala mi- gun.	Mi rgyal-la-gun
126. To good men		Noro mi-gun-i	·Mi rgyal-la-gun-ni
127. From good men.		Nörö mi-gun-la	Mi rgyal-la-gun-la
128. A good woman	Teal at a second	Noro mi-gun-nā	Mi rgyal-la-gun-nä
29. A bad boy	S1 4 1 11 1 2 2 2 2		Bo-mo rgyal-la shik
30. Guon women			Bu-isha rigok-po shik .
31. A bad girl.	S7		Bo-me rgyal-la sak
32. Good	T., .		Bo-me risok-po shik .
3. Better	D		Rgysl-la; zang-po; jak-po
156 Tibetan.	/E/	I-u-vasang no-ro (better	ang ngyal-ia

Central Dialec	t (Sar	ndberg and Henderson).	
Written.		Spoken.	
A-pha-tsho-i		A-pha-taho-i	-
A-pha- <u>ta</u> ho-la		A-phs- <u>is</u> ho-la .	
A-pha- <u>ts</u> ho-nas	•	A-phs-tsho-nä	•
Bu-mo zhig		Bhu-mo shik	
Bu-mo-i		Bhu-mo-i	•
Bu-mo-la	•	Bhu-mo-la	•
Bu-mo-nas . ,	•	Bhu-mo-nä	•
Bu-mo gnyis	•	Bhu-mo nyi	•
Bu-mo- <u>ts</u> ho	•	Bhu-mo- <u>ts</u> hò	•
Bu-mo-tsho-i	•	Bhu-mo-tsho-i	•
Bu-mo-taho-la	•	Bhu-mo- <u>ts</u> ho-la	•
Bu-mo-tsho-nas	٠.	Bhu-mo-tsho-nä	
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*** ,**	.	*** ***	
Yag-po; legs-pa		Valence for	
,		Yak-po; is-pa	
000 0.0		h 516 n	

Spiti (Spiti).		Kägate (Darjeeling).	
A-pha nam-ki.	•	A-ba-hari-ki	
A-pha gun-la	•	A-ba-kei (Aba-kya-la)	
A-pha-gun-nä		A-ba-sale	,
Bu-mo shik		Po-mu chik	
Bu-mo shig-gi	•	Po-mu chik-i-di .	
Bu-mo shik-la	•	Po-mu chik-la	
Bu-mo shik-nä .	٠	Po-mu chik minji .	
Bu-mo nyi ,	•	Po-mu nyi	
Bu-mo nam		Po-mu-kya	
Bu-mo nam-ki	•	Po-mu-kya-gi-di (ke-i-di)	
Bu-mo gun-la		Po-mu kya-la	-
Ru-mo gun-na		Po-mu kya minjik .	-
Mi gyala shik		Ya-bu mi chik	\cdot
Mi gyala shig-gi	•	Ya-bu mi chik-i-di .	
Mi gyala shik-la .	•	Mi ya-bu chik-la .	
Mi gyala shik-nä		Mi ya-bu chik-le .	•
Migyala nyi	•	Mi ya-bu nyi	•
Mi gyala gun	•	Mi ya-bu kya	•
Mi gyala gun-gi	٠	Mi ya-bu ke-i-di .	
Mi gyala gun-la	•	Mi ya-bu kya-la .	•
Mi gyala nam-nä	•	Mi ya-bu kya-sa-le .	•
Bo-mo gyala shik .	•	Pe-mi ya-bu chik .	
Thu-gu sok-po shik .	٠	Piza ma-ya-ba chik .	
But-met gyala	•	Ya-bu pe-mi-kya	•
But-met sok-po shik	٠	Po-mu ma-ya-ba chik	
Gyala	٠	Ya-bu	\cdot
De-sang gyala	•	Ya-bu	•

Sharpa (Darjeeli	ng).		Dänjongkä (Sandberg).	Lhoke (Darjeeling).	English.
Papa-tsho-yi .	•	•	A-pho-teho-i	Ap- <u>ts</u> u-gi	107. Of fathers.
Papa-tsho-la .		•	A-pho-tsho-lo	Ap-isu-lo	108. To fathers.
Papa-įsho-nä .			A-pho-tsho-nä	Ap-tsu-lä	109. From fathers.
Pu-mo chik .		•	Pum chi	Bum chik	110. A daughter.
Pu-mo chig-gi .	•	:	******	Bum chigi	111. Of a daughter.
Pu-mo chik-la.	•	•		Bum ohik-lo	112. To a daughter.
Pu-mo chik-nä .	•	•	•••••	Bum chik-lä	113. From a daughter.
Pu-mo nyi .	•	•	•••••	Bum nyi	114. Two daughters.
Pu-mo- <u>ts</u> ho	•	•	•••••	Bum-tsu	115. Daughters.
Pu-mo-tsho-yi .	٠	•	•••••	Bu-mo-i	116. Of daughters.
Pu-mo <u>ts</u> ho-la .	•	•	•••••	Bu-mo-lu	117. To daughters.
Pu-mo taho-nä .	•	•		Bum-tau-lä	118. From daughters.
Mi le-mo chik .	•	•	Milem chi	Mi lek-zhim chik	119. A good man.
Mi le-mo chig-gi	•	•	·····	Mi lek-zhim chigi	120. Of a good man.
Mi le-mo chik-la	•	•	*****	Mi lek-shim chik-lo	121. To a good man.
Mi le-mo chik-na	•	•	•••••	Mi lek-shim chik-lä	122. From a good man.
Mi le-mo nyī .	•	•	******	Mi lek-shim nyi	123. Two good men.
Mi le-mo- <u>ts</u> ho .	•	•	No. 200	Mi lek-zhim- <u>is</u> u	124. Good men.
Mi le-mo- <u>ts</u> ho-yi	•	•	*****	Mi lek-zhim- <u>ts</u> o-i . ,	125. Of good men.
Mi le-mo- <u>ta</u> ho-la	•	•	•••••	Mi lek-zhim-tgu-lo	126. To good men.
Mi le-mo- <u>te</u> ho-nä	•	٠	*** ***	Mi lek-shim-tgu-lä	127. From good men.
Per-me le-mo chik	•	•	ðes 199	Am lek-zhim chik	128. A good woman.
Pi- <u>dz</u> a ma-le-pa	•	٠	IBI eee	Bu- <u>k</u> ho zop chik	129. A bad-boy.
Per-me le-mo- <u>te</u> ho	•	٠	*** ***	Am lek-zhim- <u>is</u> u	130. Good women.
Pu-mo ma-le-pa	•	•	*** 500	Bu-mo zolt chik	131. A bad girl.
Le-mo	٠	•	Lem	Lek-zhim	132. Good.
Si-na le-ma .	•		Te-lä lem	•••••	133. Better.

English.		Baltī (Baltistar).	Purik (Purik).	Ladákhi (Ladakh).
134. Best .		Chōk-batsek leagh-mō	The ang-ma-vasang noro	Tahang-mii sang rgyal-la
135. High .		Thon-mō	Thon-mō	
136. Higher		Dē-o-batsek thon-mō		Thon-po
137. Highest	•		Di-u-vasang thon-mo	-sang thon-po
	• •	Chōk-batsek thon-mō	Thsang-ma-vasang thon-mo	Tshang-mä sang then-po .
138. A horse	•	Rstā chik	Rstā chik	Stazhik
139. A mare .	• •	Rgun-mā chik	Rgunma chik, ghun-mā chik	Rgot-ma, ghot-ma
140. Horses .	• •	Rstā-ngun	Rstā-gun, (-un)	Sta-gun, sta-sak
141. Mares .	•	Rgun-mō-ngun (chōk) .	Ghun-mā-un (-gun)	Rgot-ma-sak
142. A bull .		Ghlang chik, ghlang-to chik	Ghlang-to chik	Illang-to chik
143. A cow .	• •	Bā chik	Bā chik ,	Ba-lung chik
144. Bulls .		Ghlang-gun; Ghlang-ngun	Ghlang-to-un	Hlang-to-sak
145. Cows .	• •	Bā-ngun	Bā-un, bā-gun	Ba-lang-sak
146. A dog .	• •	Khyi chik	Khyi chik	Khyi zhik
147. A bitch .	• •	Khyi-më chik	Khyi-mõ chik	Khyi-mo zhik
148. Dogs .		Khyi-ngun	Khyi-un, khyi-gun	Khyi-gan
149. Bitches		Khyi-mō-ngun	Khyi-mö-gun	Khyi-mo-gun
150. A he goat .		Rā-skyes chik	Rā-skyes chik	Ra-po chik
151. A female goat		Rā chik	Rābak chik	Ra-ma chik
152. Goats .		Rā-bak-gun	Rābak-gun	Ra-ma-sak
153. A male deer		Shā-phū-rang chik		Sha-po
154. A female deer		Shā mō-rang chik		Sha-mo
155. Deer .	• •			Sha-ba
156. I am .				V
157. Thou art .				71
158. He is .				Zha ŝa
159. We are .				
160. You are ,				Vga-zha in
160—Tibetan				Shyo-zha in

Central 1	Dialec	t (San	dberg and Henderson).
Written,			Spoken.
*** ***			******
Mthon-po .	•	•	Thom-po

			•••••
Rta-po	•	•	Та-ро
Rgod-ma .	•	•	Gō-ma
Rta- <u>ts</u> ho .	•	•	Ta-tshe
Rgod-ma- <u>ts</u> ho .	•	٠	Gö-ma-taho
Glang	•	•	Lang . ·
Ва-то	•	•	Bha-mo
Glang- <u>is</u> ho .	•	$\cdot $	Lang-taho
Ba-mo- <u>ts</u> ho .	•		Bha-mo- <u>ts</u> ho
Pho-khyi .	•	•	Pho-khyi
Mo-khyi	•		Mo-khyi ·
Pho-khyi-tsho .	•		Pho-khyi-tsho
Mo-khyi- <u>ts</u> ho .	•		Mo-khyi-tsho
****			Ra-thong
Ra-ma	•	•	Ra-ma
Ra-tsho	•	-	Ra-tsho
*** ***			
•••••			

Nga yod	•	-	Nga yö
Khyod 'adug .	•	-	Khyö duk
Kho 'adug .	•	•	Kho duk
Nga-taho yod .	•	-	Nga- <u>ta</u> ho yö
Khyod-isho 'adug	٠.	$\cdot $	Khyö- <u>ts</u> ho duk

Spit	ii (Spiti).	Kägate (Darjeeling).
Tshang-mä	sang gyala .	******
Thon-po .		Rung-bu
De-sang tho	n-po	
Tshang-mä s	ang thon-po .	Mang-bu rung-bu chik
Ta shik .		(-much high one).
Gotma shik		•
Ta nam	•	Ta-mu chik
Gotma nam		Ta-bu kya
	•1	la-mu kya
Lang-to shik	1.	ang chik
Ba-lang shik	· F	a-lang chik
Lang-to nam	· · · L	ang kya
Ba-lang nam	· P	a-lang kya
Kbi shik	· K	hi chik
Mo khi shik	· K1	ni-mu chik
Khi nam.		i-kya
Mo-khi nam		i-mu kya
Ra-wo shik		
Ra-ma shik		angre chik
Ra-rigs nam	1	ma chik
Sha-pho shik		kya
Sha-mo shik		esa chik
	La ligi	esa a-ma (deer-mother)
Sha-wa-rigs mam	· · Khye	esa kya
Ngã yin .	· · Nga	•
Khyut yin .	· · Khyo	•
Kho yin .	· . Kho e	
Vga-zha yin .	· · · Ngi-k	70.0
hyo-zha ym .	1	• •
162—Tibotan		

Sharpa (Darjeeling).	Dänjongkä (Sandberg).	Likoke (Darjeeling).	English.
Te-ri si-na le-mo .	Gün-lä lem		134. Best.
Thon-bu	Tho	Tho-wo	135. High.
Si-na thon-bu	Te-lä tho	·····	136. Higher.
Te-ri si-na thon-bu	Gün-lä tho		137. Highest.
Ta chik	Ta chi	Tachik	138. A horse.
Goid-ma	490 ₀ ga	Goym chik	139. A mare.
Ta-taho		Ta-isn :	140. Horses.
Goid-ma-tsho		Goym-tau	141. Mares.
Lang chik		Langechik	142. A bull.
Chhung-ma chik	Bhacku chi	Bachik	143. A cow.
Lang-isho		Lang-tau.	144. Bulls.
Chhung-ma-tako		Ba-tau	145. Cows.
Ki chik	•••••	Pho-khyi chik	146. A dog.
Ki-mo chik		Khyi-mu chik	47. A bitch.
Ki-tsho		Pho-khyi-tau	48. Dogs.
Ki-me-tsho		Mo-khyi-tau	49. Bitches.
Ra-pho chik	Ra-po	Ra-pho chik 1	50. A he goat.
Ra-mo chik		Ra-ma chik	51. A female goat.
•••		Ra- <u>ts</u> u	52. Gosts.
Kha-sha-phe chik		Sha-pho chik 1	53. A male deer.
Kha-sha-mo chik	s	Sha-mochik 1	54. A female deer.
Kha-sha	s	Sha-u	55. Deer.
Nga yin	Nga in	Nga yin	56. I am.
Khyot-rang yin	Chhō bā	Chyot yin-bet 1	57. Thou art.
Kho yin	Kho bi	Cho bet 1	58. He is.
Dak-pu yin	Nga-cha in	iga-chak yin 1	59. We are.
Khyot-rang yin	Chhō bā	Chyot yin-bet	60. You are.

English.	Baltī (Baltistan).	Purik (Purik).	Ladškhī (Ladakh).
161. They are	Khong yot	Khong in	Kho-gun in
162. I was	Nga yot-pa	Nga-rang yot-pin	Nga yot-pin
163. Thou wast.	. Khiang yot-pa.	Kbye-rang yot-pin	Khyot yot-pin
164, He was	. Khō yot-pa	Khō yot-pin	Kho yot-pin
165. We were	. Ngayā yot-pa	. Nga-tang yot-pin	Nga-zha yot-pin
166. You were	. Khye-tang yot-pa	. Khyen-tang yot-pin	Khyo-zha yot-pin
167. They were .	. Khong yot-pā	. Khong yot-pin	Kho-gun yot-pin
168. Be	. Yot, duk, in	· Yot, duk, in	Yot, duk, in
169. To be	Yot-chas .	Yot-chas	Yot-ches
170. Being	. Yot-pa, yot-të	Yot-tū	Yot-te; yot-khan
171. Having been .	. Yot-pa in-tē	Yot-khan in-të	Yot-khan in-te
172. I may be	. Ngā yot-na (if I be) .	. Ngā yot-na (if I be) .	Ngu yot dro
173. I shall be	. Ngā dug-uk	Ngā dug-in	Nga dug-in
174. I should be .	. Ngā duk rgos	· Ngā duk rgos	Nga duk-rgos (ghos) .
175. Beat	. Tong, rdung	Rdung	Rdung
176. To beat	. Teang-chas	· Rdung-ohas	Rdung-ches
177. Beating	. Tang-sē	Rdung-sē	Rdung-ste
178. Having beaten .	. Trang-se yot-pa	Rdung-së yot-pa	Rdung-tehar-te
179. I beat	. Nga-se teang-nuk	· Nga-s rdung-duk	Ngë rdung-at
180. Thou beatest .	. Khiang-se teang-et .	· Khye-rang-is rdung-duk .	Khyod-dis rdung-at
181. He beats	Khō-se teang-et	· Khō-s rdung-duk	Kho-e rdung-duk
182. We beat	. Ngaya-se teang-nuk .	· Ngs-tang-is rdung-duk .	Nga-zhii rdung-at
183. You beat	Khyetang-se tang-et	· Khyen-tang-is rdung-duk .	Khyo-zhä rdung-at
184. They beat	Khong-se teang-et	· Khun-t-is rdung-duk	Kho-gun-nis rdung-duk
185. I beat (Past Tense)	Ngi-se t'angs, t'angs-pa	· Nga-rang-is rdung-s	Ngä rdungs-pin
Tense).	Khūse tsangs-pa	· Khye-rang-is rdung-s .	Khyod-dis rdungs-pin
187. He beat (Past Tense	Khō-se t*angs-pa	Khō-s rdung-s	Kho-e rduvgs-song . ,

Central Dialect (San	dberg and Henderson).
Written.	Spoken.
Kho-tsho 'ađug	Kho-tsho duk
Nga yod-pa-yin	Nga yö-pa-yin
Khyod yod-pa-red	Khyö yö-pa-re
Kho yod-pa-red	Kho yö-pa-re
Nga-tsho yod-pa-yin	Nga-tsho yö-pa-yih'
Khyod- <u>ts</u> ho yod-pa-red	Khyö- <u>ts</u> ho yö-pa-re
Kho-tsho yod-pa-red	Kho-tsho yö-pa-re
Yod-pa	Yö-pa

	·
	
Rdung	Dung
Rdung-ba • •	Dung-wa
Rdung-ba	. Dung-wa

	Nga-rang-ghī dung-ghi yö.
	Khyö-rang-ghī dung-ghi du
	Kho-rang-ghi dung-ghi du
*****	Nga-taho-ghī dung-ghi yö .
***	Khyō-tsho-ghi dung-ghi du
*******	Kho-pa-ī dung-ghi du .
	Nga-rang-ghi dung-wa-yin
*****	Khyö-rang-ghi dung-wa-re
•••••	Kho-rang-ghi dung-wa-re .
	Tibetan—165

Spiti (Spiti)		Kāgate (Darjeeling).
Kho-ba yin		Khung-kya e
Ngã yod-din	•	Nga woe
Khyud yod-din .		Rang woe
Kho yod-din		Kho wee
Nga-zha yod-din .	•	Ngi-kya woo
Khyo-zha yod-din .	٠.	Rang-kya woe
Kho-ba yod-din .	•	Khung-kya woe
Yot		*****
Yot-che	•	han oza
Yot-te	•	*** 12,
fet 18a		******
Chi she ngã yin-do .	-	Nga-i ong-do
•••	ĺ	44
*** ***		*** ***
Gуор	-	Rop-kong
Gyap-che	•	Rop-ohe
Gyab-bin shik dang .	•	Rop-di
Gyab-te	•	Rop-sing-di
Ngë gyab-ba yot	•	Ngai rop-ken
Khyoi gyap duk .		Khyo-i rop-ken .
Khoi gyap duk .	•	Kho-i rop-ku-du
Nga-zhä gyab-ba yot		Ngi-kya-i rop-ken
Khyo-zhä gyab-ba dut		Khyo rop
Kho-bä gyap-duk	. :	Khung-e rop-to
Nga gyab-ban .	-	*** ***
Khyut-ki gyap-song .	•	•••••
Khoi gyab-ban		

Sharps (Darjeeling).		Pänjongkä (Sandberg).	Lhoke (Darjeeling).	English.
Kho-taho yin	•	Khong ba	Khong bet	161. They are.
*** ***				162. I was.
*****			*****	163. Thou wast.
*****		4	******	164. He was.
* *****		•••••	•••••	165. We were.
•••••		#85***	•••••	166. You were.
****		*** ***	******	167. They were.
Yot	•	*****	Yin-ba	168. Be.
*** ***		*** ***	Yin-ba	169. To be.
Chung-ni	٠	*** ***	Yin-ba	170. Being.
Chung-de	٠	*****	MA 000 -	171. Having been.
Nga yin-do . :	·	*****	Nga yin-gyu	172. I may be.
Nga yong		ago •••	Nga thä-gyu	173. I shall be.
Nga yong goi		*****	Nga yin-pa thä-gyu	174. I should be.
Dung		*****	Dung-che	175. Beat.
Dung-gyn		•••••	Dung-bo	176. To beat.
Dung-gi nok	•	•••••	Dung-bo	177. Beating.
Dung-nä		•••••	Dung-di-gi	178. Having beaten.
Ngas dung-gi yot .			Nga dung	179. I beat.
Khi dung-gi nok .	•		Khyot dung	180. Thou beatest.
Khoi dung-gi nok .		••• •••	Khu dung	181. He beats.
Da k-puj dung-gi yok		•••••	Nga-chag-gi dung	182. We beat.
Khi dung-gi nok .		*** **	Khyot dung	193. You beat.
Kho- <u>ts</u> hoi dung-gi nok		•••••	Khong-gi dung	184. They beat.
Ngas dung-ba yin .	•	*****	Nga dum-yin	185. I beat (Past Tense).
Khi dung-gi nok .		*****	Khyot dum-yin	186. Thou beatest (Past
Khoi dung-song .		*****	Kho dum-yi	187. Re beat (Past Tense).

English.		Baltī (Baltistan).	Purik (Purik).	Ladākhī (Ladakh).
188. We beat (Past Tens	ie).	Ngnya-se trangs-pa	Ngarê-s rdung-s	Nga-zhä rdungs-pin .
189. You beat (Past Ter	se)	Khyetang-se trangs-pa .	Khyen-ti-s rdung-s	Khyo-zhä rdungs-pin .
190. They beat (Past Te	nse)	Khong-ise tangs-pa .	Khong-is rdang-s	Kho-gan-nis rdungs-pin
191. I am beating .		Ngā t'ang-ma duk	Ngā-mng rdang-gin duk	Nga rdung-gin duk
192. I was beating .		Nga t'ang-ma duk-pa	Ngā-rang rduug gin duks- pa.	Nga rdung-gin yot-pin .
193. I had beaten .		Ngā-se t'aug-s-et-pa	Ngā-res rdung-s-et-pa	Ngü rdungs-pin
194. I may beat .	•	000 · · ·	···	•••••
195. I shall beat .		Ngū-se t ^c ang-uk	Nga-rē-s rdung-uk, or rdung-in.	Ngā rdung-in
196. Thou wilt beat .		Khiang-se teang-uk	Khye-r-is rdung-uk	Khyod-dis rdung-in
197. He will beat .		Khō-se trang-uk	Khō-s rdung-uk	Kho-i rdung-in
198. We shall beat .		Ngaya-se t'ang-uk	Nga-tò-s rdung-uk	Nga-zhä rdung-in
199. You will beat .	•	Khyc-tang-se trang-uk .	Khyen-ti-s rdung-uk .	Khyo-zhä rdung-in
200. They will beat .	•	Khong-ise teang-uk .	Khong-is rdung-uk	Kho-gun-nis rdung-in .
201. I should beat .	•	Ngā-se t ^e ang-rgos-uk .	Nga-s rdung-rgos	Ngä rdung-ghos
202. I am beaten .	•	Ngå trang-ma song-s-et .	Ngā rdung-se duk	Nga-la rdung-duk
203. I was beaten ,	•	Ngā t ^c ang-ma song-s-et-pa .	Ngā rdung-se duk-s-pa .	Nga-la rdungs-pin
204. I shall be beaten	•	Ngā t'ang-ma-gik (gik- will go).	Ngā-la rdung-chas yong-uk	Nga-la rdung-in
205. I go	•	Ngã gō-et	Ngā-rang chhēt (=chhā-et)	Nga-chha-at
206. Thou goest .		Khiang gō-et	Khye-rang chhēt	Khyot chha-at
207. He goes		Khō gô-et	Khō chhết	Kho chha-ruk
208. We go	•	Ngayā gō-et	Nga-tang chhēt	Nga-zha chha-at
209. You go	•	Khye-tang gō-et	Khyen-tang chhēt .	Khyo-zha chha-at
210. They go	•	Khong gö-et	Khong clihēt	Kho-gun chha-ruk
211. I went		Ngā song, song-pa	Ngā-rang song-m-in, or, song bin.	Nga song-pin
212. Thou wentest .	•	Khiang song	. Khye-rang song-m-in	. Khyot song-pin
213. He went .	•	. Khō song	. Khō song-m-in	. Kho song
214. We went .	•	. Ngayā song	Nga-tang song-m-in .	. Nga-zha song-pin
.,		· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·		

Central Dialect (Sandberg and Henderson).					
Written.	Spoken.				
	Nga-isho-ghi dung-wa-yin .				
101 000	Khyö-isho-ghi dung-wa-re				
•••••	Kho-pai dung-wa-re .				
,300000	Nga-rang-ghi dung-ghi yö				
••••••	*****				
•••••					
•••••	. ,				
Ngas rdung-yong	Ngë dung-yong				
Khyod-kyis rdung-yong .	Khyō-kyī dung-yong				
Khos rdung-yong	Khō dung-yong				
Nga-tshos rdung-yong .	Nga- <u>ta</u> hō dung-yong .				
Khyod-tahos rdung-yong .	Khyö-tahö dung-yong .				
Kho-tahos rdung-yong .	Khon- <u>ts</u> hö dung-yong .				
*****	******				

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Spiti (Spiti).	Kägate (Darjeeling).
Nga-zhā gyab-ban .	
Khyo-zhä gyab-ban	•••••
Kho-bä gyab-ban .	
Ngs gyab-bin shik dang yot	Nga-i rop-ken
Ngš gyab-bin yod-din .	Nga-i rop-rang-rop-ku-ye- ken.
Ngë gyap tahar-ban	Nga-i rop-sing
Chi she nga gyab-in.	······
Ngä gyab-in	
Khyod-ki gyab-in	*****
Khoi gyab-in	440000
Nga-zhä gyab-in	******
Khyo-zhä gyab-in	******
Kho-bi gyab-in	•••••
	Nga-i rop-kong
Ngã-la gyab-in chha-ruk .	Nga-la rop-lang-sing .
Ngã-la dung duk-pin .	Nga-la rop-lang-sing
	Nga-la rop-lang-gue .
Nga chha-a yot	Nga don
Khyut ohha-ruk	Khyo don
Kho chha-ruk	Kho don
Nga-zha chha-a yot .	
Khyo-sha chha-ruk .	
Kho-ba chha-ruk	
Ngã song-ban	Nga kal-sing
Khyat song-ban	Khyo kal-pa
Kho song-ban	Kho kai-ang
Nga-sha song-ban	

Sharpa (Darjeeling).	Pänjongki (Sandberg).	Lhoke (Darjeeling).	English.
Dak-poi dung-pa-yin .	098 Ave	Nga-chag-gi dum-yi	188. We best (Past Tense).
Khi dung-song	940 840	Chot dum-yi	189. You beat (Past Tense).
Kho-tshoi dung-song	000 940	Khong-gi dum-yi	190. They beat (Past Tense).
Ngas dung-gi yot	*****	Nga dum da-o-yin	191. I am beating.
Ngas dung-gi yot-pa yin .	******	Nga dum da-o gang-yin .	192. I was beating.
Ngas dung-pa yin	******	Nga dum <u>ts</u> ha-di yin .	193. I had beaten.
Ngas dung-chhok	*****	Nga dum go ong	194. I may beat.
Ngas dung-yong	*****	Nga dung-ni yin	195. I shall beat.
Khi dung-yong	************************************	Chhot dung-ni yin	196. Thou wilt beat.
Khoi dung-yong	***	Khu dung-ong	197. He will beat.
Dak-poi dung-yong	4 115 ***	Nga-chak dung-ni-yin .	198. We shall beat.
Khi dung-yong	0****	Chhoy dung-ong	199. You will beat.
Kho- <u>ts</u> hoi dung-yong	*****	Khong dung-ong	200. They will beat.
Ngas dung-goi	*****	Nga dung-go	201. I should beat.
Nga-la dung-song		Nga dung-do-yin	202. I am beaten.
Nga-la dung-chung	244 200	Nga dum-yin	203. I was beaten.
Nga-la dung-yong	*****	Nga dung-ong	204. I shall be beaten.
Nga do-gi yot	P04 co+	Nga gyo-do-yin	205. I go.
Khyo do-gi nok	******	Chhot gyo-do	206. Thou goest.
Kho do-gi nok	******	Kho gyo-do-wat	207. He goes.
Dak-po do-gi yot	e o e geg	Nga-chak gyo-do	208. We go.
Khyo do-gi nok	••••	Chho gyo-do ,	209. You go.
Kho-igho do-gi nok	for and	Khong gyo-do	210. They go.
Nga gal-bin	800 000	Nga song-yi	211. I went.
Khyo gal-lup-song	991	Chhot song-yi	212. Thou wentest.
Kho gal-song	••••	Kho song-yi	213. He went.
Dak-po gal-lup	400040	Nga-chak song-yi	214. We went.

	English,	Balti (Baltistan).	Purik (Purik).	Ladākhī (Ladakh).
215.	You went	Khye-tang song	Khyen-tang song-m-in .	Khyo-zha song
216.	They went	Khong song	Khun tang song-m-in .	Kho-gun song
217.	Go	Song	Chhen-zbik	Song shik
218.	Going	Song-sē	Song-sē	Chha-khan
2 19.	Gone	Song-se	Song-se	Song-khan
220.	What is your name?.	Yar-ri ming-taghs chi zer- et ?	Khyer-1 ming chi yot? .	Khyo-rang-ngi ming-la chi zer-duk ?
221.	How old is this horse?	Rstā dü-i naso <u>ts</u> am- <u>ts</u> ē in P	Diù retā-la nasō <u>ts</u> am <u>ts</u> ē duk?	I sta na-so <u>ts</u> ham duk ? .
	How far is it from here to Kashmir?	Khachul-la <u>ts</u> am- <u>ts</u> ë lam yot?	Di-khā-nā Khachul <u>is</u> hakpa <u>is</u> am <u>is</u> ē tha <u>gh</u> -rings duk ?	I-nas Kha-chhul <u>ta</u> huk-pa lam <u>ta</u> ham zhik duk?
	How many sons are there in your father's house?	Khyed-i atii-i khangma-la bu taam yot?	Khye-ri at-i khang-ma-la bü isam duk?	Khyo-rang-ngi a-bä khang-pa-la bu- <u>ts</u> ha <u>fs</u> ham zhik duk?
	I have walked a long way to-day.	Di-ring thagh-ring lam-la song-s-et-pa.	Diring ngā thagh-rings drul-s-pin.	Di-ring nga thak-ring-nas yong-s-pin.
	The son of my uncle is married to his sister.	Ngari nēnēi bū-la rang-1 string-mē nang ba <u>kli</u> ston bayas.	Nga-rī atā bū- <u>is</u> ha-s rang-ī a-chē nang ba <u>gh</u> -stonb ^e yas.	Ngä a-zhang-ngi bu <u>-ta</u> hä rang-ngi shring-mo a-ne-la khyer-s,
	In the house is the sad- dle of the white horse.		Kliang-ma-la karpō rstā sgā yot.	
	Put the saddle upon his back,	Khu-ri shul-i khā sga stot.	Sgå-stan khu-ri shul-i kha tong.	Gha stot
	I have beaten his son with many stripes.	mot-po toang-s	Nga-s khu-rī bū-la mang- mo stal-chak tang-s.	Ngä kho-i bu-taha-la sta- lehags mang-pe tang-s.
	He is grazing cattle on the top of the hill.	Khō-esi bang-nor-gun brog- la tahō-in yot.	Khō ri-gō thon-mō-la nor- gun tahō-in duk.	Kho-e ring-go-la dut-dro taho-va-la khyers.
	He is sitting on a horse under that tree.	Kho rstä-kha stagh chig-i ogtu duk-se yot.	Khō rstä ~khā zhon-ne lehang-mi yok duk.	Kho a bu-drä yok-la stä- kha shon-te duk-duk.
	His brother is taller than his sister.	Khoë phō-nō khurī string- mō-batsek rgō-bongs thon- mō yot.	Khu-rī phō-nō khu-rī a-chē vasang thon-mō duk.	Kho-i shring-moi sang a- cho gho-bo ring-mo duk.
	The price of that is two rupees and a half.	Debi rin-po dabal nyis nang phet in.	Dū-i rin-la gir-mö phed- ang-sum duk.	I rin-po gir-mo phed-ang sum yot.
	My father lives in that small house.	Ngi atā dē <u>is</u> un <u>i</u> ņē nang-po duk-sē yot.	Nga-rī atā ē <u>ta</u> un <u>t</u> gē khang- ma-la duk-sī yot.	Ngä a-ba a khang-ngu-i nang-na duk-duk.
	Give this rapee to him	Di shmul-pö khō-la min .	Dift shmul-pö khō-la tong .	I gir-mo kho-la tong .
	Take those rupees from him.	Yā shmul-pō-nguu khō-nā len.	B shmul-gun khu-ri kha-në len.	A gir-mo sak kho-i kha- nä nen-shik.
	Beat him well and bind him with ropes.	rdung-se ljakh-pi-kha ching.	Khō-la nōrō basē rdung yang thag-pa-ching-sē bor.	Kho-la shran-te rdung-s-te thak-pa dang nyam-po kyigs-shig.
	Draw water from the well.	Chhudong nang-nā chhu phyung.	Chhū-mik-nā chhū khyong	Chhu-dong-nä chhu zhik chhus.
	Whose have comes he	.Ngi dunuk song	N gä snà drul	Ngä dun-la drul-chik
	Whose boy comes behind you?	Su-1 phrú yari rgyab-la ong-et?	Su-i bû khye-ri rgyap-na yong-duk!	Khyo-rang-ngi sting-la drul-khan-po su-i bu- taha in ?
	From whom did you buy that?	Diu su-i shiti-a-na len-s ?	Khye-ris diù su-l kha-në nyos-yot?	A-wo su-i kha-në nyes-pin ?
	From a shopkeeper of the village.	Drong-i dukan-i shiti-a-nā lens.	Yul-ī hatri-pa chig-i khā-nē	I ynl-li ishong-pa zhik-në .

Central Dislect (Sendberg and Henderson).							
Written.	Spoken.						
800 000	404 949						
*****	•••••						
***	•••••						
000 000							
900***							
944.444	Khyö-kyi ming-la ghang ser?						
*****	480						
341 409	Di-në (Kha-chül-) la tha- ring-thung gha-igho re?						
e e b 114	***						
001 098	******						
244	*** ***						
*******	•••••						
880.000	•						
400.000	***						

ace 100	******						
670	•••••						
800 ***							

001 020							
14+ 898	***************************************						
111.000							
. ******							
	Khyō-rang ngā ngān-la gyuk.						
200 400	oga srt						
	101 540						
*** •**	******						

Spiti (Spiti).	Kägate (Darjeeling).
Knyo-zha song-ban	•••••
Kho-ba song-ban	
Song	······
Chha-yin shig dang	······
Song-khan	Kal-sing
Khiut-ki ming chi yin? .	Chimba khyoi ming?
Di ta-i lo tsam song?	Ta-bi lo kazai di ?
Di-nä Khachhul ga-igam thak-ring yot?	Ka-ze tharing-bu di-le Kashmir ?
Khyo-zhii a-phii khang-pa- ru bu-isa isam yot?	Khyo a-ba-sa-la pu ka-ze ye-ba?
De-ring ngữ mã-lam thak- ring dul-ban.	Nga tharing-bu kal-sing .
Ngā a-khui bu-tai kho-bā a-chi ba-ma-la shbong-de	
yot. Ta kar-poi ta-ga de khang- pa-ra yot.	Ta-bu karumgi kā khim-la yoc.
Ta-ga khoi gyab-bi kharu bor.	Kā khoi kyap-la kal .
Ngä khoi bu-tsa-la ta-chak mang-po gyab-ban.	Ngai rob-sing khoi pu-la kyakche shuk-pu-ki.
Rigä go-ru kho-i dud-do tsho-ruk.	Khoi kang-la bastu-kya tshou-du.
Kho bu-ta shig-gi yok-tu tai kha-ru dat-duk.	Kho ta-bu kha-la za-di tong-bu-gi wā-lā du.
Khoi a-cho khoi a-chi sang thon-po duk.	Khoi a-zi bhanda no rim-bu du.
Dei rin ngul chhed dang sur yin.	n Khoi ring sika nyi dang tanga chik.
Ngë a-pha de khang-ps chungun-du dad-da yot.	Ngai a-ba o khim chhung- la te-kue.
Di ngul kho-la tong	Di nor kho-la ter
De ngul kho-nä len-tong	. Kho-sale nor-kya kher-chu
Kho-ls pu-sang gyop-d rashi dang ching-tong.	Kho-la rop-tong yang thak- pa-gi bes pedi tong.
Chhu-dong-nä chhu ton	. Kuwa-le chhu ten
Ngã sang ngun-la dul	Ngai nge-la do
Khyot-ki gyap-na sui bu taa yong-duk?	Sui pi-za khyoi ting-la onggu duba?
Khyot-ki de sui kha-n nyos-pin P	K Su-sale nyo-bn o-di?
Yul-gi haṭi-pa shik-në	. Yul-gi dokardar-sa-le nyoba
174 – Tibetan	

Sharpa (Darjeeling).	Pänjongkä (Sandberg).	Lhoke (Darjeeling).	English.
Khyod-rang gal	••••	Chho song-yi	215. You went.
Kho-tsho gal	*****	Khong song-yi	216. They went.
Gyng	Song; gyu	Gyo; song	217. Go.
		Gyo-do	218. Going.
Gal-song	•••••	Long-song-yi	219. Gone.
Khi ming kang yin? .	Chhö ming kam bo? .	Khyot ming ga-chi yin? .	220. What is your name?
Ta diga-dzu gal?	Di ta di-lo ka-dzu som-bo?	Ta di na ga-tä chik yin? .	221. How old is this horse?
Kha-ji-lung-ba la di-nä thak-ring-bu ka-dzu ot ?	Nai-le Kashmir san-te tha- ring-tung ka-dzö-mo?	Na-lä-Kha-chhi-yol tha- ring-thung ga-tä-chik vin?	222. How far is it from here to Kashmir?
Khi papa-i khang-ba-la pu- jung ka-dzu yot?	******	ym? Khyoi apha-i khyim-na bu ga- <u>is</u> hö yot?	223. How many sons are there in your father's house?
A-ring nga thak-ring-po-nä ong-wa yin.	•••	Ngā de-ring tha-ring-chik shel tang zin.	224. I have walked a long way to-day.
Ngai a-gu-i pu-jung kho-i nu-mo tang gyan kus ot.		Ngä a-zhangi budi khui sring-mo dang nyan kyab- yin.	225. The son of my uncle is married to his sister.
Khang-ba-la ta kar-pa-i ka od.	******	Ta kap-di gadi khyimai nang-lu yot.	226. In the house is the sad- dle of the white horse.
Ka di gyap-la kal	•••••	Gadi khui gä-pa kyap .	227. Put the saddle upon his back.
Ngas khoi pu-jung-la a-la dung-pa-yin.		Ngā khui budi bik-ko mam kyap-ti dung-yin.	228. I have beaten his son with many stripes.
Kho ri-teng-la sem-chen teho-gi nok.	***	Kho ri-tse-lu no tsho-do .	229. He is grazing cattle on the top of the hill.
Kho ta-i ting-la dong-bu-di og-la nok.	••••	Khu aphi shing-di ok-lä ta-lo zhon-bä dot-yot.	230. He is sitting on a horse under that tree.
Khoi u-ju te a-ji si-na ring- po nok.	•••••	Khui nu-chung di sring-mu di-lä thowat.	231. His brother is taller than his sister.
Te-yi rin-ma tang nyi tang phet yin.	••••	Di rin di matang phedang sum yin.	232. The price of that is two rupees and a half.
Ngai papa khang-ba tuk-pe te-la dot-gi yot.		Ngā ap di khim chung aphi nang-lu yot.	233. My father lives in that small house.
Ţang-ga di kho-la bin		Khu-lu matang di bin-chik	234. Give this rupee to him.
Țang-ga de- <u>ta</u> ho kho-nä len		Matang di-tsho khui nang- lä len-chik.	235. Take those rupees from him.
Kho-la le-mo dung-ni thak- pai ching.	••••	Kho zhak-pa bë dung-ching tak kyap zak.	236. Beat him well and bind him with ropes.
Tomba-nä chhu ling .	•••••	Om-chung nang-lä chhu ok-chik.	237. Draw water from the well.
Ngai dong-la do .	.00 000	Ngā dun-lu gyo-chīk .	. 238. Walk before me.
Khi gyap-la si pi-dza ong gi nok?		Chhoi gyap-lä ga-gi bu-tabu ong-bo-mo?	239. Whose boy comes behind you?
Khi sui <u>ts</u> a-nä nyop ?	,,,,,,,	Chhoi di gag-lä nyo-yin ?	240. From whom did you buy that?
Yul-gi tshong-pa chik-nä		Ghyong nang-lu ishong- khang-dak-pa chik-lä yin	241. From a shopkeeper of the village.

HIMALAYAN LANGUAGES.

The northern region of the Himalayas is inhabited by Bhōtiās or Tibetans. To the south we find a long series of tribes speaking dialects which all belong to the Tibeto-Burman family. Hodgson divided those tribes 'into two groups, distinguished by the respective use of simple or non-pronominalized, and of complex or pronominalized languages.' He made an especial study of the dialects spoken in Nepal, which State was not included in the operations of this Survey. Some of the hill-dialects of Nepal are spoken within British territory. They will be dealt with in the ensuing pages. No new materials have been forwarded about the bulk of those forms of speech, and we cannot therefore add anything to our knowledge concerning them. The remarks which follow will therefore be principally restricted to the Himalayan dialects spoken within the territory included under the operations of this Survey, and to such Nepalese languages as are also spoken within British territory. The remaining dialects will only be dealt with as a kind of appendix.

Proceeding from the west, the dialects to be considered are as follows:—

		' 7 87.	ame of	dha dia	Jack			Number of sprakers.		
		"IN:	ame of	tne qua	uect.				Local estimates.	Census of 1904.
Manchāți			•	•		•	•		2,995	2,441
Chamba Lāhuļī			•	•	•	•	•	-	1,387	1,543
Bunán Ranglöi	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	. }	2,987	5,529
Kanāshī			•	•	•		•		980	
Kanāw ^a rī		•		•			•		13,099	19,525
Rangkas	•	•		•	•	•			614	***
Darmiyā	•	•		•	•	•	•		1,761	•••
Chaudāngs	i		•		•	•			1,485	
Byāngsī	•		•		•	•	•		1,585	•••
Jangali	•			•	•	•	•		200	
Sunwār	•		•	•	•	•	•	•	5,356	5 ,26 5
Gurung	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	·	•••	7,481
Mãgari	•		•	•	•	•	•	•]	16,979	18, 4 76
Thāmī	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		100	319
Nēwāri		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	5,979	7,87 3
Pahri	•	•		•	•	•	•		4+4	268
Murmi	•	1	•	•	•	•	•		36,848	32,167
					Can	rried o	ver		92,355	100,887

								<u> </u>	Number of speakers.			
	Name of the dialect.								Local estimates.	Census of 1904.		
and the second second	Brought forward .								92,355	100,887		
Yākhā		•	•		•	•	•		1,250	1,366		
Limbu	•	•		•					24,045	23,200		
Khambu :	and R	ai							41,490	43,954		
Róng				•					34,894	19,291		
Dhīmāl		•							•••	611		
Toto .				•					200	170		
·						To	JAT		194,234	189,479		

The above figures do not include the speakers of the various dialects in Nepal. Several of them being properly Nepalese languages, the figures can only give an imperfect idea of the number of speakers.

Speakers of three other Nepalese dialects have turned up at the last Census of 1901 within British territory. The details are as follows:—

	ac of di	alect.			Number of speakers.									
Kāmī	•	•		•	•	Assam	•	•	•		•	,		11
Bhrāmu	•					Assam		•				•		15
Vāyu		•	•			Assam ((90), 1	Bengal	(24)		•		•	114
Mānjhi				•		Bengal	(515)	, Assa	m (38'	7)	•	•	•	902
											To	TAT	•	1,042

Sixty-four speakers were further returned under the head of Kirāntī, viz., fifty-eight from Assam and six from the United Provinces. It is not stated which of the so-called Kirāntī dialects is meant. The number of speakers of the dialects under consideration within British territory at the last Census was accordingly 190,585.

The dialects spoken by the Kāmīs and Mānjhī do not fall within the scope of this Survey, and nothing is known about them. They will not, therefore, be dealt with in what follows.

The Kāmīs are the blacksmiths of Nepal. According to Sir Herbert Risley they are probably immigrants from India, who have intermarried freely with some of the indigenous races of Nepal. No information is available about their language. It is not, however, probable that they speak a separate dialect.

The Mānjhīs are the fishers of Western Nepal. No information is available about their dialect, if they have any.

The remaining dialects will be dealt with in the ensuing pages. They are all Remaining dialects.

Tibeto-Burman forms of speech. In many of them, however, we can observe several features which are not in accordance with Tibeto-Burman principles. Thus a difference is often made between such words as denote animate beings and inanimate things, respectively; higher numbers are often counted in twenties and not in tens as is the case in Tibetan, Burmese, Chinese, Siamese, etc.; the personal pronouns often have a dual in addition to the ordinary plural, and double sets of the dual and plural of the first person, one including and the other excluding the person or persons addressed; there is in many dialects a tendency to distinguish the person of the subject by adding pronominal suffixes to the verb, so that a kind of regular conjugation is effected, and so forth.

In such characteristics the dialects in question have struck out lines of their own, in thorough disagreement with Tibeto-Burman, or even Indo-Chinese, principles. They have accordingly become modified in their whole structure. It is difficult to help inferring that this state of affairs must be due to the existence of an old heterogeneous substratum in the population, which has exercised an influence on the language. That old population must then have spoken dialects belonging to a different linguistic family, and the general modification of the inner structure of the actual forms of speech must be due to the fact that the leading principles of those old dialects have been engrafted on the language of the tribes in question. Now it will be observed that all those features in which the Himalayan dialects differ from other Tibeto-Burman languages are in thorough agreement with the principles prevailing in the Muṇḍā forms of speech. It therefore seems probable that Muṇḍās, or tribes speaking a language connected with those now in use among the Muṇḍās, have once lived in the Himalayas and left their stamp on the dialects spoken at the present day.

The non-Tibeto-Burman characteristics mentioned above are seldom found together in one and the same form of speech, and some of the dialects under consideration have few, if any, traces of them. On the other hand, some of these features, such as the distinction between an inclusive and an exclusive plural of the first personal pronoun, have penetrated much further and are e.g. found in the Western dialects of Tibetan. If we only consider the formation of verbs, the most interesting feature of Tibeto-Burman languages, it will be found that Hodgson's classification into non-pronominalized and pronominalized languages holds good for the whole field of Himalayan philology. We shall therefore adhere to it in the ensuing pages and consider the Himalayan dialects under two different headings, non-pronominalized and pronominalized dialects.

The latter group we shall further sub-divide into two sub-groups, one comprising several dialects spoken to the east of the valley of Nepal, and the other consisting of some forms of speech in Almora and farther towards the west.

NON-PRONOMINALIZED DIALECTS.

The dialects spoken in the central region of the Himalayas in Sikkim and in the valley of Nepal and to the east of it are all characterized by a great simplicity in their grammatical system. Some of them, such as Gurung and Murmī, are closely related to the Tibetan dialects. Murmī has, however, abandoned the Tibeta-Burman method of counting higher numbers in tens and reckons them in twenties. There also seems to be a tendency to distinguish the subject of verbs by adding pronominal suffixes. The negative verb is formed in Gurung and Murmī by prefixing an \bar{a} and often, besides, suffixing a na. A similar double negative is also used in Rong.

The dialect spoken by the Sunwārs is apparently now characterized by the same simplicity as in the case of Gurung and Murmī. Higher numbers are counted in twenties. There are short forms of the personal pronouns which are frequently used as prefixes. The person of the subject does not appear to be distinguished in the verb. The negative particle is a prefixed $m\bar{a}$. Hodgson describes Sunwār as a complex pronominalized dialect. So far as we can judge from the unsatisfactory materials at our disposal, that is no more the case at the present day.

Māgarī is a dialect of the same type. The pronoun of the second person is nang as in Nepalese dialects such as Chēpāng and Bhrāmu, and in numerous dialects of Assam and Further India, especially (for instance) in the Kuki-Chin forms of speech. Compare also $k\bar{a}n$ -ko, we, with $k\bar{a}n$, our, in most Kuki-Chin dialects. Compare further the numerals Māgarī, kat, Lushēi pa-kat, one; Māgarī bu-li, Lushēi pa-li, four; Māgarī ba-nga, Lushēi pa-nga, five. In most respects, however, Māgarī agrees with Gurung, Murmī, etc., in general principles, and, to a great extent, also in details of vocabulary and grammar. The negative particle is a prefixed $m\bar{a}$.

Mägarī often also agrees with Nēwārī, the old State language of Nepal. In that form of speech we again find a distinction between nouns denoting animate beings and inanimate objects respectively. The numerals and the personal pronouns have forms which agree with those in use in the western, pronominalized, group of Himalayan languages. Compare *chhi*, Pahrī *thiki*, one, with Bunān *tiki*; nasi, Pahrī nhisi, two, with Byāngsī nisi; pi, four, with Bunān, etc., pi; ji, I, with Byāngsī, etc., ji, and so forth. Nēwārī is not, however, a pronominalized dialect, but is characterized by the same simplicity as Mägarī and connected forms of speech.

Pahri can be considered as a sub-dialect of Newari.

There still remains one important language of the non-pronominalized type, viz., Róng of Lepcha. We here again find the tendency to distinguish between such nouns as denote animate beings and such as are the names of inanimate things. The numerals often agree very closely with those in use in the Kuki-Chin group. Compare $k\bar{a}t$, Lushēi pa-khat, one; nyet, Ngentē pa-nhit, two; fa-li, Lushēi pa-li, four.; ta-rok, Meithei, etc., $ta-r\bar{u}k$, six, and so forth. The prefix \bar{a} , which is very common in nouns and adjectives, should be compared with the corresponding a in Kuki-Chin, while the ka-prefix in $ka-l\bar{u}t$, bare, etc., is very common in dialects of the Nāgā and Bodo group. It will be seen that the old prefixes have been preserved as independent syllables in Róng, and that language in this respect forms one of the links which connect Tibetan and the Himalayan dialects with the Tibeto-Burman languages of Assam and Further India,

Higher numbers are counted in twenties. The person of the subject is not indicated in the verb, and Rong is thus a typical dialect of the non-pronominalized type. The negative verb is formed by prefixing ma and suffixing ne; compare Gurung and Murmi.

The Toto dialect will be dealt with after Rong because it does not make any use of pronominal suffixes. Our materials are, however, so imperfect that it is impossible to say anything for certain about its affiliation. The numerals are almost pure Tibetan. The personal pronouns are almost the same as in Dhīmāl. Higher numbers are counted in twenties.

It has already been remarked that Hodgson classed Sunwar as a pronominalized dialect. Several characteristic features of the pronominalized group of Himalayan languages have also been traced in other dialects such as Murmi and Newari. It is perhaps allowable to infer that all, or most, of the non-pronominalized Himalayan dialects have once belonged to the pronominalized group, but have, in the course of time, given up most of the characteristic features of the group, under the influence of the neighbourse.

GURUNG.

The Gurungs are one of the best fighting tribes of Nepal. They are classed together with the Khas, the Mägar, and the Sunwär castes as mukhya, or chief. Their old home is a tract of country between the Bheri and Marsyandi rivers, to the north of the Mägars. In modern times they have spread all over Nepal, and also to Darjeeling and Sikkim. Speakers have also been returned from Assam.

No local estimates of the number of speakers have been forwarded for the purposes of this Survey. At the last Census of 1901, Gurung was returned as follows:—

Assam					•	•	•		•	•	•	•	•	1,339
Bengal	and Feudat	ories:												
	Jalpaigur			,	•	•	•	•		•	•	•	224	,
	Darjeelin		•	,	•	•		•	•		•	•	4,132	
	Chittagor	g Hil	l Trac	ts	•			•		•			4	
	Sikkim				•				•		•		1,782	
														6,142
													••	
										T	OTAL			7,481

In Assam the Gurungs were most numerous in Lakhimpur (501) and in the Naga Hills (266). We have no information regarding the number of speakers in Nepal.

The Gurungs of Western Nepal are still Buddhists. Elsewhere they are gradually being Hinduized, and there is, at the same time, a distinct tendency among them to abandon their old dialect in favour of Khas. Thus 2,721 out of a total of 4,502 Gurungs in Sikkim returned their language as Khas at the last Census.

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Hodgson, B. H.,—On the Aborigines of the Sub-Himalayas. Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. xvi, Part ii, 1847, pp. 1235 and ff. Reprinted in Selections from the Records of the Government of Bengal, No. 27, Calcutta, 1857. A corrected and enlarged reprint is found in B. H. Hodgson's Essays on the Languages, Literature, and Religion of Nopal and Tibet. London, 1874, Part ii, pp. 29 and ff. It is entitled On the Aborigines of the Himalaya. Contains Gurung vocabularies.

BEAMES, J.,—Outlines of Indian Philology, with a map showing the distribution of Indian languages.

Calcutta, 1867. Appendix A contains numerals in Gurung, etc.

HUNTER, W. W., - A Comparative Dictionary of the Languages of India and High Asia. London, 1868.

The Nepal Darbar has been kind enough to supply a version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son and a list of Standard Words and Phrases in Gurung. The remarks which follow are based on them.

In vocabulary and phonetical system, and also in grammatical principles, Gurung is more closely related to Tibetan than are most Himalayan languages.

Pronunciation.—It is often difficult to decide whether a vowel is long or short, the spelling of the specimens being inconsistent. It seems probable that Gurung in this respect agrees with Central Tibetan.

The diphthong ou is often written eou after y; thus, $yeo\tilde{u}$ -ba, getting.

We have no information regarding the pronunciation of the sound which I have transliterated as an Anunasika. It sometimes interchanges with n; thus, $dh\tilde{o}$ and dhon, beat.

The consonantal system is apparently nearly the same as in Aryan dialects such as Hindi. The aspirated soft consonants have apparently developed from older unaspirated sounds. Compare gho, classical Tibetan rgyab, back; $dh\tilde{o}$, classical Tibetan rdung, beat. The aspiration is so marked that such sounds are commonly pronounced as the corresponding hard unaspirated letters. Compare pra and bhra, hundred; $k\tilde{o}$ -ye, classical Tibetan gon, cloth; cha, classical Tibetan za, eat; sa-ba, classical Tibetan bzang-ba, good.

The final consonants of classical Tibetan have usually been dropped. Compare phe, classical $pheb \cdot pa$, to come; mi, classical mig, eye; gho, classical rgyug, run; $\bar{a} \cdot gu$, classical grogs, friend; pre, classical brgyad, eight; so, classical gson, alive; $p\tilde{i}$, classical sbyin, give; $dh\tilde{o}$, classical rdung, beat, and so on.

There are several compound consonants such as ghr, kr; bhr, pr; ghl, kl; bhl, pl; mr; mn, and so on. Compare $ghr\bar{\imath}$ and kri, one; bhre and pre, eight; ghlo, place; $kl\bar{\imath}$, divide, and so on. Our materials are not, however, sufficient for a full description of the relationship between Gurung and classical Tibetan in this respect. In most cases, it is true, old compounds have been simplified; thus, ta, classical rta, horse; so, classical gson, alive; $dh\tilde{o}$, classical rdung, beat; na, classical sna, nose; nha, classical rna, ear; $p\tilde{\imath}$, classical sbyin, give; le, classical lche, tongue, etc. In other cases the assimilation is only partial. Thus, pra, classical brgya, hundred; pre, classical brgyad, eight; $kur\tilde{a}$, classical sgra, word. Various changes have taken place during this process of assimilation. Compare $ghr\tilde{\imath}$, classical gchig, one; bhli, classical bzhi, four, etc.

It is not, in this place, possible to do more than to draw attention to the existence of a series of phonetical laws regulating the relationship between Gurung and classical Tibetan. It would be necessary to have at our disposal much fuller materials in order to trace those laws in detail.

Tones and accent are probably the same as in other Nepal languages.

Article.—There is no article. The numeral $ghr\bar{i}$, one, is used as an indefinite article; thus, $mh\bar{i}$ $ghr\bar{i}$, a man.

Nouns.—The prefix \bar{a} is common before nouns of relationship. Thus, \bar{a} -ba, father; \bar{a} - $m\bar{a}$, mother; \bar{a} - $l\bar{a}$, brother. It also occurs in other words such as \bar{a} -gu, companion.

Gender.—The natural gender is distinguished by using different words or else by adding suffixes such as bokya, dho, $d\bar{a}rhy\bar{a}$, male; mama, me, murli, female. Thus, \bar{a} - $l\bar{i}$, younger brother; \bar{a} - $ng\bar{a}$, younger sister: $b\bar{a}$ -sat- $lhy\bar{a}$, bull; mhe, cow: jha, son; jha-me, daughter: ta, horse; ta ma-ma, mare: na-ki dho, dog; na-ki ma-ma, bitch: ra bokya, he goat; ra ma-ma, she goat: fo $d\bar{a}rhy\bar{a}$, male deer; fo murli, female deer.

Number.—There are two numbers, the singular and the plural. The plural is not marked when it appears from the context. In other cases words such as mae, many, jaga, all, and so on, are added. Thus \bar{a} -ba-mae, fathers; na-ki jaga, dogs. Forms such as $k\tilde{o}$ -ye, clothes; ma-ye, kisses, perhaps contain another plural suffix ye.

Case.—The subject of intransitive verbs and the object are not distinguished by adding any separate suffix.

The subject of transitive verbs is put in the case of the agent, which is formed by adding a suffix ji or di; thus, \bar{a} -ba-di, the father said; ki-ji $ho\bar{a}$ -ji, thou struckest.

This suffix is sometimes also written de, and in that case it looks like the postposition $d\tilde{e}$ or de, classical Tibetan dang, with which, in its turn, is sometimes written di. The initial d of the suffix of the agent is often pronounced as a th. Compare the remarks under the head of pronunciation above.

In chhu-ba-si, with ropes, the instrument has been indicated by adding a suffix si. The suffix of the dative is $l\bar{a}$ -di or $l\bar{a}i$; thus, \bar{a} -ba- $l\bar{a}di$, to a father. Such forms are sometimes also used to denote the object of transitive verbs; thus, cha-e jha- $l\bar{a}$ -di nga-di dhon-di, his son-to me-by struck, I have beaten his son.

The usual suffix of the genitive is e or ye; thus, $dh\hat{i}$ -ye, of the house. After i we sometimes find a instead; thus, \bar{a} -ba ghri-a, of a father. An a preceding the genitive suffix is often dropped; thus ti-be ghlo-ri, living-of place-in, in the place where he stayed.

Another genitive suffix is la; thus, \bar{a} -ba-mae-la, of fathers. It is probably originally a dative suffix; compare chiti-la, to senses. Such forms can also be considered as terminatives. The usual terminative-locative suffix is, however, $r\bar{i}$ or re; thus, $mno-r\bar{i}$, in the field, to the field. Instead of $r\bar{i}$ we also find $rey\bar{a}$; thus, $yo-rey\bar{a}$, on his hands.

The suffix na in forms such as pho-de-pho-de-na, with hunger; $rhe-g\tilde{u}-na$, from a distance; saba-na, safely, is probably an ablative suffix.

Other relations are indicated by means of postpositions. Such are $d\tilde{e}$, de, and di, with, to; $h\tilde{a}$ - $r\tilde{i}$, near, with; huinle, hundi, from; $jara-r\tilde{i}$, under; lidi, after, behind; $m\tilde{a}$, in, among; $n\tilde{i}$, before; $nu-r\tilde{i}$, inside, into; $pher\tilde{i}$, on; $thum-r\tilde{i}$, on the top of, and so on.

Adjectives.—Adjectives usually follow the noun they qualify, or precede it in the genitive; thus, mhi sa-ba, a good man; the-be anikāl, a heavy famine. Sometimes, however, we find forms such as \bar{a} -sa-ba puin-jha-jha ghri, bad boy one, a bad boy; $t\bar{a}rgy\bar{a}$ ta-e kathi, white horse's saddle.

Adjectives usually take the suffix ba; thus, sa-ba, good; sim-ba, cold; kro-ba, hot; $m\bar{\imath}-va$, ripe.

The particle of comparison is bhandā; thus, cha-ma-e ring bhandā cha-ma-e ā-lī nu-ba mu-lā, his sister than his brother tall is, his brother is taller than his sister. Bhandā is a Naipālī loan-word.

Numerals.—The first numerals are given in the list of words. They follow the word they qualify. Higher numbers are counted in tens; thus, bhlī-chyu, forty; tu-chyu, sixty; nī-chyu, seventy; bhre-chyu, eighty; ku-chyu, ninety.

Pronouns.—The following are the personal pronouns:—

nga, I.

nga-ji, nga-di, ngai,

by me.

nga-e, nga-la, my.

ngi-jag, nheo-jaga, we.

ngi-ji, nheo-di, by us.

nheo jaga-la, our.

ki, thou.
ki-ji, ki-di, by thee.
ki-ye, ki-la, thy.
nha-mae (jaga), you.
nhamae-ji, nha-me
jaga-di, by you.
nhame, nhamae jagala, your.

cha, ocha, he.
cha-ji, cha-di, cha-i,
by him.
cha-ye, cha-maye, his.
cha-mae, cha jaga,
they.
cha-mae jaga-di, by
them.

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The list of words contains several other forms. Thus, cha-man, we, in No. 165; ki-n, thou; cha-n, he; $ky\bar{a}$ -mae, they, and so on. Cha-man is probably due to a mistake. The form seems to mean 'they.' $Ky\bar{a}$ -mae is probably only another way of writing cha-mae. The final n in some of the forms just quoted is probably an intensifying particle. Compare Tibetan ni.

Reflexive pronouns are khi-ye, own; thama, thama-ye, thame, own.

Demonstrative pronouns are chu, this; cha, that.

Interrogative pronouns are $khae-pa-ch\bar{a}$, who? lit. who that? to and to-cha, what? ta-le, why? kati, how much? Hodgson also gives $s\bar{u}$, who? The indefinite pronouns are formed from the same bases; thus, khae-ba-de, by anybody; $tay\bar{\imath}$, anything, and, according to Hodgson, also $s\bar{u}-y\bar{a}ng$, anybody; $ta-y\bar{a}ng$, anything. The two last mentioned pronouns contain an indefinite particle $y\bar{a}$ or $y\bar{a}ng$. Compare $ghr\bar{\imath}-y\bar{a}$, one even; $khay\bar{\imath}-y\bar{a}$, ever; $lh\bar{a}-so-y\bar{a}$, still.

Verbs.—The conjugation of verbs is relatively simple. There is no change for person or number, and the verb is, on the whole, still virtually a noun.

Verb substantive.—The most common verb substantive is mu. Another base na is used in form such as $t\tilde{o}$ -si na-bu, am, art, or is, beating. A third base is ta or tu in ta-di, is; $t\tilde{u}$ -di, am; tab-mu, shall be; nga $l\bar{a}la$ tum-mu, I should be, and so forth. In \bar{a} -gi- $l\tilde{a}$, I am not, we apparently have a fourth base gi.

Finite verb.—The verb substantive is, to some extent, used in the conjugation of finite verbs.

Present time.—The base alone is used as a present tense; thus, nha-me jaga-di $t\tilde{o}$, you strike. M or ma, i.e., probably the verb substantive mu, is, however, very commonly added. Thus, ngai $t\tilde{o}$ -am, I strike; nga $hy\bar{a}$ -m, I go; ngi $hy\bar{a}$ -ma, we go. Forms such as chha-se-m, he is grazing; ti-si-m, he lives; kha-si-m, he comes, are formed by adding the same m to the conjunctive participle. Compare also ti-si-mu-ta, he is sitting; ki $t\tilde{o}$ -si na-bu, thou strikest, and so forth. The suffix ta in mu-ta, is, was, is probably a general assertive suffix, and is not restricted with regard to time.

Past time.—The suffix $l\bar{a}$ or $l\bar{a}$ is often used with the meaning of a past; thus, $nga\ hy\bar{a}-l\bar{a}$, I went; $kha-l\bar{a}$, he came. In ti-le, they remained, le is used in the same way.

The suffix $b\bar{a}$ in $la-b\bar{a}$, madest, is properly the suffix of a participle. Compare Tibetan pa, ba.

The most characteristic suffix of the past is ji or di; thus, $ho\bar{a}-ji$, went; $b\bar{\imath}-di$, said. Forms such as la-sem, did; \bar{a} -ngwe-sem, I did not transgress, seem to contain the conjunctive participle ending in si and the verb substantive.

Future.—The suffix of the future is mu, or ma, i.e., probably the verb substantive; thus, $ngai\ to-mu$, I shall strike; $khi-ji\ ho\bar{a}-ma$, thou wilt strike.

Imperative.—The base alone is often used as an imperative. Thus, pi, give; $t\tilde{o}$, beat. A very common suffix is du, which often occurs in an abbreviated form d or t; thus, cha-du, eat; si-d, die; $r\tilde{a}-t$, stand. Lago, come; lu, well, let us, contain a suffix u or o.

Verbal nouns and participles.—A verbal noun is formed by adding the suffix $b\bar{a}$; thus, $n\bar{a}cha\ la-b\bar{a}$, dance making, dancing; $chha-ba-r\bar{\imath}$, in order to graze.

Forms such as $cha-l\bar{a}$, to eat; $pl\bar{i}-la$, to fill, probably contain the same suffix as we have found in use in the formation of the tenses, or else la is a dative suffix.

The verbal noun ending in $b\bar{a}$ is also used as a relative participle, in which case it usually precedes the qualified noun in the genitive; thus, dukha ta-be bela-ri, distress befalling time-at, at the time when distress befell him; $j\bar{a}g\bar{i}r$ cha-be mhi, wages eating man, servant. The same participle is also used in such relative clauses as are introduced by an interrogative pronoun; thus, nga-la to mu-ba, me-to what being, all that is mine.

The form ending in ba is sometimes also used with the meaning of a conjunctive participle; thus, $b\bar{\imath}$ -ba, having said.

The most common conjunctive participle ends in si; thus, la-si, having done; ghyo-si, running.

Another conjunctive participle is formed by adding the postposition $m\bar{a}$ to a verbal noun which is identical with the base; thus, $b\bar{\imath}-m\bar{a}$, on saying, having said.

The tense bases are also used as participles; thus, ti-sim mu-lā, is sitting; sī-la, dead.

Passive voice.—There is no passive voice. 'I am struck' must be translated 'somebody struck me,' and so forth.

Causative.—There is only one certain instance of a causative. It is formed by aspirating the initial consonant; thus, cha-ba, to eat; chha-ba, to feed.

Negative particle.—The negative particle is a prefixed \bar{a} ; thus, \bar{a} -hy \bar{a} , he did not go; \bar{a} - $p\tilde{i}$, didst not give. Na is sometimes added to the verb. Thus, \bar{a} -yeo \tilde{u} -na, he did not get.

Order of words.—The usual order of words is subject, object, verb. Adjectives follow the word they qualify or precede it in the genitive. Numerals follow, and demonstrative pronouns and genitives precede the word they qualify.

For further details the student is referred to the version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son which follows and to the list of Standard Words and Phrases on pp. 254 and ff. [No. 17.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

GURUNG.

(NEPAL.)

Mhi ghri-ve jha nhī mu-lā. Cha iha nhì-mā jha cheoũ-ba ā-ba-dẽ, Man one-of sons two Those sons two-among son younger father-to, were. 'nga-ye yeou-ba bhāgā-ansa klī-bhīn.' bī-mā ā-ba-di ansa klī-bhen-di. getting portion-share divide,' having-said father-by share divided-gave. Bhanā-nhīse jha cheoũ-ba-di save nhura bayā-si, rhegũ Short-afterwards 80n younger-by wealth property taking, far paradesa hvā-si. cha-ri moja la-si ti-si cha-di khi-ve cha-ri-na ansa other-country going, there pleasure doing living him-by own share thereudi-di-wā-di. Cha-ye sampati kharcha khã-he la-si lidi cha tī-be squandered. Hisproperty making spent coming after he living-of the-be anikāl tala: cha-lā ā-yeoũ-na. Dukha ta-be bela-rī place-at great famine occurred; to-eat not-got. Distress falling-of time-at desar-be mhi ghri ha-rī hya-si ţī-si cha sahar-rī tī-be mhī-dī that country-of man one withgoing living that town-in living-of man-by cha-lā-dī khī-ye mno-rī tīlī chha-ba-rī lhe-di-la. Khae-ba-de ā-pī-nā. him field-in swine grazing-for applied. Anyone-by anything not-gave. Cha ab-ilit cha-be dhuto-de cha-ye pho plī-la ā-yeou-na. Chiti-la belly to-fill eating-of husks-with Those swine-bu his not-got. Sense-to khā-si bī-ba-rī hō-dī, 'nga-ye ā-ba-ye prasuta ghể cha-si ngave-bave coming to-say 'my father-of sufficient bread having-eaten began, to-spare mhī mu-lā, nga pho-de-pho-de-na veoũ-bā kati-kati jagir-cha-be si-la tũ-di. how-many wages-eating man were. 1 hunger-with getting dying hã-ri ā-bā hyā-si, "ye Nga ri-si ā-ba. prameśvara ra kī-ye phi-rī I risina father near going, " O father, Godand thybefore $la-l\tilde{a}$. Kī-ye jha dhỗ-bà ã-gi-lã. nga-di pāpa Nga-lādī tĩsio-re jāgīra sin committed. Thy like me-by 80n not-became. Мe now wages cha-be mhī dhỗ-bā ladu." bī-mu.' bī-ba thama-ve ā-ba hã-rī hyā-dī. eatina man like make." will-say, saying own father to went. Cha jha rhegu-na mro-mā chama-ye ā-ba-di kha-si mhaya ghvo-si That son far-from seeing his father-by compassion coming running hyā-si cha-lā-dī gardana-rī ākhala-jheő-si maye cha-dī. Jha-dī ā-ba-dī bī-dī. going him neck-in embracina kiss ate. Son-by father-to said, VOL. III, PART I. 2 R 2

Nga kì-ye jha dhỗ-bā ā-gi-lã.' Thama-ve 'pramesvara ra kī-ye pāpa la-di. thy son like not-became.' did. I His' God and thu singheba-lā-dī hī-dī, 'lu, chhyade kõye bha-si thama khi-bhin. ā-ba-dī well, beautiful clothes bringing put-on. father-by own servants-to said, juttā khī-bhīn. Lu, Yo-reyā aŭthī khī-bhīn, bhali-re nheo-jaga cha-si feet-on shoes put. Well,Hand-on ring put, we-all eating bī-syã, cha nga-ye thum-si majāk Ta-le jha sī-la, la-le. pheri drinking merry shall-make. Why saying, that son died, my again kha-di; mha-lā, yeő-dī.' Ananda la-si ti-le. Joy making remained. reviving came; was-lost, was-got.'

dhĩ-ye the-bā Kha-si ihedu mno-rī mu-lā. Cha-ye iha Coming house-of near arriving-on big field-in was. Hisson'to nācha-la-bā the-mā chākara ghrī-lā-dī huī-si, cha?' bājā-nhā-bā music-playing dance-making hearing-on servant one-to calling, 'what that?' nyū-mā, '"nha-me ā-lī sabana kha-lã,'' bī-si nha-me ã-ba-dī saying saying asking-on, "" your brothersafely came," your father-by bhatyār ghrī la-sem,' bī-si tha-ma-ye ghe-ba-di bī-mā, cha ris kha-si one made,' saying own servant-by saying-on, he anger coming feast nu-rī ā-hyā. Tha-me ā-bā bāhīra yū-si tha-me dhã jha-lä-dī hwã-dī. house within not-went. Own father outside coming own son-to coaxed. Tha-ma-ve ā-ba-lā-dī jha-dī jabāba pī-dī, 'nhedu, jou berkha samma tī-si father-to son-by answer gave, 'lo, so-many years up-to living Hisghe-la-si khayoyā kī-dī bi-be kurā nga-dī ā-ngwe-sem, daseyā kī-dī thee-by said word me-by not-transgressed, thee-by work-doing ever stillți-si majäk khavő-mule nga-lā-dī ā-gu-de la-ba-rī jha-jha ghrī-yā ra me-to friends-with staying merry making-for goat young one-even ener-even ți-si kī-ye saye-nhura cha-be jha-lā-dī kī-dī bhatyār Besyā-de ā-pĩ. not-gavest. Harlots-with living thy property eating son-to thee-by feast ā-ba-dī bī-dī, 'ye jha, kī la-bā.' Tha-me nga-dĕ-na Nga-la to mu. madest.' father-by said, 'O Hisson, thou me-with art.Mine what mu-ba, kī-lã tadi. Nheo-dī majāk la-si saye tõ-sī thik mu-la. Ta-le is. Us-by merry making glad becoming proper was. being. thine chu kī-ye ā-lī sī-la, so-sī kha-dī; mha-la, pherī bi-syã, thisthy brother died, living came; was-lost, again was-found.' saying,

MURMI.

The Murmis claim to be among the earliest settlers of Nepal. According to Sir Herbert Risley, 'their physical characteristics, and the fact that their exogamous divisions (thars) bear Tibetan names, seem to lend support to the opinion that they are descended from a Tibetan stock, modified more or less by intermixture with Nepalese races.'

The Murmis are also known under other names, such as Tāmāng Bhōṭiā, Ishāng, and Sain.

The home of the Murmi tribe is the valley of Nepal and its whole vicinity. They are further found in considerable numbers in Darjeeling and Sikkim.

We have no information about the number of speakers in Nepal. Their number of speakers in Darjeeling and Sikkim was estimated for the purposes of this Survey as follows:—

•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	19,000
										Tor	AL		36,848
													TOTAL .

At the last Census of 1901, Murmi was returned from the following districts:—

Assam	•	•									. 105
Bengal and Feu	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	. 32,062	
Jalpaiguri	•	•	•	•	•	•	٠	•	•	. 1,582	
Darjeeling	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	. 25,165	
Sikkim .	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	. 5,315	
										TOTAL	. 32,167

The Census figures show that the local estimates from Sikkim are considerably above the mark.

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Calcutta, 1867. Appendix A contains numerals in Murmi.

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Specimens of Murmi have been forwarded from Nepal and Darjeeling. A version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son and a list of Standard Words and Phrases from Nepal and a popular tale from Darjeeling will be reproduced below. The materials forwarded for the purposes of this Survey are the only basis of the remarks on Murmi grammar which follow.

Murmi is very closely related to Gurung. Like that latter form of speech it is more intimately connected with Tibetan than are most other Himalayan dialects.

Pronunciation.—The phonetical system is mainly the same as in Gurung. Forms such as kwān, Tibetan gon, cloth; chā, Tibetan za, eat; pli and bli, Tibetan bzhi, four; pre and bre, Tibetan brgyad, eight, and so forth, in which hard and soft consonants interchange, seem to show that the soft consonants of Tibetan have developed into soft aspirates, and further into hard sounds.

The final consonants of classical Tibetan have been retained to a greater extent than is the case in Gurung. Thus, rop, Tibetan rgyab, beat; sat, Tibetan gsod, kill; thung, Tibetan thung, drink; kwān, Tibetan gon, cloth. There is, however, the same tendency to drop such sounds as is observed in Gurung. Compare thā-ring, Tibetan thag-ring, far; rho, Tibetan grogs, friend; so, Tibetan gson, alive; the, Tibetan thos, hear; mui, Tibetan dngul, mul, silver.

There are several compound consonants such as kl, gl, pl, bl, ml, kr, gr, pr, br, mr, ky, gy, jy, and so forth. Thus, the $kl\bar{a}$ - \bar{a} -ri, that place in; $gl\bar{a}$ -gi-ri-n, place-one-in, with; pli and bli, four; $mr\bar{a}ng$, see; kyang-no, all, and so forth. Many old compounds have, however, been simplified. G has been dropped in compounds such as gr, gs, and rgy; thus, rho, classical Tibetan grogs, friend; so, classical gson, alive; sat, classical gsod, kill; rop, classical rgyab, beat; pre, classical brgyad, eight. Initial r and s have been dropped in forms such as $t\bar{a}$, classical rta, horse; $nh\bar{a}$, classical rna, nose; kra, classical skra, hair; pin, classical shyin, give. Note also le, classical lche, tongue; $l\bar{a}$, classical lche, god, $l\bar{a}$ -ni, classical zla, moon, and so forth.

Mr apparently corresponds to classical mth in mrāng, Tibetan mthong-ba, see; mrin, Tibetan mthon-po, full. Compare Burmese mrang, to see; mrüng, to be full.

There is apparently also a certain connexion between dhim, tim, and Tibetan khyim, a house.

We have no information about tones or accentuation.

Article.—There are no articles, but the numeral ki, gi, one, is often used as a kind of indefinite article; thus, $\bar{a}-b\bar{a}-ki$, a father; $jhy\bar{a}-b\bar{a}$ ki mhi, a good man; ki $jhy\bar{a}-b\bar{a}$ mi- $l\bar{a}$, of a good man. It will be seen that ki sometimes precedes and sometimes follows the qualified noun.

Nouns.—The prefix \bar{a} is common in words denoting relationship; thus, \bar{a} - $b\bar{a}$, father; \bar{a} - $m\bar{a}$, mother; \bar{a} - $l\bar{a}$, younger brother; \bar{a} - $ng\bar{a}$, younger sister; \bar{a} -gu, uncle.

Gender.—The natural gender can be distinguished by using different words or by adding words such as $hv\bar{a}-b\bar{a}$, male; me and $m\bar{a}m\bar{a}$, female; thus, mhi, man; $mring-kol\bar{a}$, woman: $jh\bar{a}$, son; jha-me, daughter: $t\bar{a}$, horse; $t\bar{a}-m\bar{a}m\bar{a}$, mare: $t\bar{a}ngi$ $hv\bar{a}-b\bar{a}$, male deer; $t\bar{a}ngi$ $m\bar{a}m\bar{a}$, female deer.

Numbers.—The number is not indicated if it appears from the context. If it is necessary to distinguish the plural, words such as $k\bar{a}de$, $k\bar{a}te$, or $g\bar{a}de$, many; dugu (Tibetan dgu), many, are added. Thus, \bar{a} - $b\bar{a}$ $k\bar{a}de$, fathers; $ch\bar{a}kara$ dugu, servants.

Case.—The subject of intransitive verbs and the object are not distinguished by adding any suffix. The subject of transitive verbs is usually put in the case of the agent, which is formed by adding se; thus, chāng-bā-se pān-ji, the younger-by said, the younger said. Instead of se we sometimes find chhe; thus, āp-chhe, by the father. In phāyen-ji, from hunger, hungering, ji appears to have been used instead. Compare Gurung. The same suffix is also used to denote the instrument. Thus, chho-se, with ropes. The form

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 $ny\bar{a}\bar{\imath}$, by me, seems to show that the suffix of this case is originally s, which has become \dot{s} after a preceding vowel.

MURMI.

The suffix of the dative is $d\bar{a}$ or $t\bar{a}$; thus, \bar{a} - $b\bar{a}$ ki- $d\bar{a}$, to a father; $ch\bar{a}kara$ - $t\bar{a}$, to a servant. This form is sometimes also used as an accusative; thus, the- $t\bar{a}$ jha- $t\bar{a}$ rop-chi. his son-to struck, I have beaten his son.

The suffix of the genitive is $l\bar{a}$; compare Gurung. Thus, ansa-bhāg-lā, of the share. A locative and terminative is formed by adding ri as in Gurung; thus, yāmbunāg-ri, in a city; dim-ri, in the house; $kh\bar{a}re$ -ri, upon the neck.

Other relations are indicated by adding postpositions. Such are $\bar{a}ng-ri$, into; $chhy\bar{a}m$ and $den-chhy\bar{a}m$, with, together with; den, $d\tilde{e}$, with; dhiri, under; $ky\bar{a}m$, $ky\bar{a}mse$, from; $l\bar{a}gi$, for; $m\bar{a}$, in, among; $th\bar{a}ri$, upon, against; yenchhe and yenji, from, and so forth. Some postpositions are added to the genitive; thus, $li-chh\bar{a}$ and li-sang, behind; $ng\bar{a}-chh\bar{a}$, behind; nindi-ri, for the sake of.

A suffix b or p of uncertain meaning occurs in several words such as cheta-p ta-si-jin-ji, having come to senses; chhutya-p la-si, division making; lhābā-b tā-ji, engaged; mānasi-b tā-si, it became proper; pheriā-b ā-si, coming outside; uḍa-b lā-si, squandered.

Adjectives.—Adjectives sometimes precede and sometimes follow the noun they qualify. They very commonly end in $p\bar{a}$ or $b\bar{a}$; thus, $jhy\bar{a}-b\bar{a}$, good; $k\bar{a}m-b\bar{a}$, bitter; $le-p\bar{a}$, hot; $min-b\bar{a}$, ripe; $no-b\bar{a}$, tall; $reng-b\bar{a}$, green; $sim-b\bar{a}$, cold; $tum-b\bar{a}$, short. There are, however, also other suffixes in use; thus, $\bar{a}-kh\bar{a}m-n\bar{a}$, unable; $ky\bar{a}ng-n\bar{a}$, all; $th\bar{a}-ch\bar{a}$, straight; kok-teng, crooked; $ml\bar{a}ngai$, black; $t\bar{a}ra$, white; $b\bar{a}la$, red.

The particle of comparison is given as oisi; thus, the $l\bar{a}$ \bar{a} -le the $l\bar{a}$ \bar{a} -ng \bar{a} oisi no $b\bar{a}$ mu- $l\bar{a}$, his brother is taller than his sister. It is, however, possible that the initial o in oi-si is a miswriting for w; compare Purik vasang.

Numerals.—The first numerals are given in the list of words. They sometimes precede and sometimes follow the noun they qualify. Instead of ki, gi, one, the texts received from Darjeeling give gik and jik. The form nhi, two, has been taken from the same source. In other cases where two different forms are given in the list, the last one has been taken from a list of numerals added at the end of the version of the Parable received from the Nepal Darbar. That latter source also gives forms such as $ch\tilde{u}$ -gri, eleven; $ch\tilde{u}$ -ngi, twelve; $ch\tilde{u}$ -som, thirteen; $ch\tilde{u}$ -pli, fourteen; $ch\tilde{u}$ - $ng\bar{a}$, fifteen; $ch\tilde{u}$ -tu, sixteen; $ch\tilde{u}$ -nis, seventeen; $ch\tilde{u}$ -bi, nineteen.

The higher numbers are counted in twenties. The list of numerals just mentioned, however, gives ngi-seb, twenty; som-seb, thirty; pli-seb, forty; ngā-seb, fifty; tu-seb, sixty; nis-seb, seventy; bre-seb, eighty; ku-seb, ninety; chiu-seb, hundred. Chui and chiu, ten, point to the pronunciation chū.

Pronouns.—Pronouns are inflected like nouns. The principal forces of the personal pronouns will be seen from the table which follows:—

	İ	I.	We.	Thon.	You.	He.	They.
Nom.	•	ngā ngāi	ngā-ni ngān-chhe, ngāl-je	ye, ai ye-se	ye-ni yen-chhe	the the-se	the-ni, thon-jyaba. then-ohhi.
Genit.	-	ngā-lā	ngā-ni kāde-lā, ngān-nā.	ye-la	yen-nā	the-la	then-nà.

Forms such as yeni kāte, you; theni-kāte-se, by them, and so forth, of course also occur. Forms such as hoju, he; $hot-l\bar{a}$, his; hochhe, by him, have been recorded from Darjeeling.

Demonstrative pronouns are chu, this; the, u-chu, ho-ju, ho-jā, that.

Interrogative pronouns are $kh\bar{a}$ and $h\bar{a}l\bar{a}$, who? $tig\bar{a}$, $tik\bar{a}$, and ki, what? $k\bar{a}de$, how many? and so forth. By adding the indefinite particle nu or no indefinite pronouns are effected; thus, $kh\bar{a}l$ -che-nu, by anyone; tiki-no, anything; $kh\bar{a}i$ - $m\bar{a}$ -ye-no, ever.

Note also the reflexive pronoun $r\bar{a}ng-l\bar{a}$ or $rh\bar{a}ng-l\bar{a}$, own.

Verbs.—The verb is still virtually a noun. The list of words gives forms such as ni-n, goest, where the final n seems to be a pronominal suffix of the second person. The suffix m in forms such as pin-ji-m, he gave, in the Darjeeling specimens, is perhaps a corresponding suffix of the third person. It is, however, more probable that this m is simply the verb substantive. The use of pronominal suffixes is, at all events, no regular feature of Murmi, though it is possible that there is a tendency to distinguish the various persons of the verb. Such a tendency is observable in several connected dialects. It is also possible to suggest the influence of other dialects in which the use of personal suffixes is quite regular.

Verb substantive.—The usual base of the verb substantive is mu, present mu- $l\bar{a}$, past mu- $b\bar{a}$. Other forms are supplied from other bases such as $t\bar{a}$, to become; re, to stand. In the ki ni, that what is ? we have a base ni. Another base ke apparently occurs in ye- $l\bar{a}$ -ke, it is thine.

Finite verbs.—The verb substantive is freely used in the formation of the tenses of finite verbs.

Present time.—The base alone is sometimes used as a present tense. Thus, ye-ni mu, we go.

The most common suffix of the present is apparently $l\bar{a}$; thus, $mu-l\bar{a}$, am; $rop-l\bar{a}$, strike.

The suffix $p\bar{a}$ or $b\bar{a}$ in forms such as the-se rop- $p\bar{a}$, he strikes; $chh\bar{a}$ -se chi- $b\bar{a}$, having grazed sits, he is grazing, corresponds to Tibetan pa or ba and does not contain any special notion of time.

Forms such as si-la-ji, I die; ha-ji, he comes; rop-chi, thou strikest; $ng\bar{a}$ -ni ni-sai, we go, and so forth, apparently contain the same suffix as that which is generally used with the meaning of a past. A similar use of the suffix of past time is not uncommon in connected forms of speech. It is perhaps due to the intention of the speaker to represent the action of the verb as an established fact.

Past time.—The usual suffix of past time is ji as in Gurung; thus, $p\bar{a}n-ji$, he said; ni-ji, he went. Instead of ji we sometimes find chi; thus, rop-chi, I have beaten. Chi is perhaps the correct form after hard consonants.

An m is sometimes added in the specimens received from Darjeeling. Thus, ngyok-chhi-m, he asked; pin-ji-m, he gave. Such forms are apparently only used in the third person.

Forms such as rop, struck; $p\bar{a}ng-b\bar{a}$, said; $khu-b\bar{a}$, boughtest, and so on, are indefinite with regard to time.

Ngae rop.chijin-ji, I had beaten, perhaps means 'I struck finished.'

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Future.—The present suffix $l\bar{a}$ is also used with the meaning of a future; thus, $p\bar{a}ng-l\bar{a}$, I shall say. Forms such as $maj\bar{a}-la\bar{\imath}$, let us make merry, are perhaps imperative.

Imperative.—The usual suffixes of the imperative are u or o and go; thus, $ch\bar{a}$ -u, eat; re-go, stand; rob-ko, beat. Other sources also give imperatives such as rob, beat; yar, run, and so forth, where no suffix is added.

The form lai, let us make, has already been mentioned.

Verbal nouns and participles.—The usual verbal noun ends in $b\bar{a}$; thus, $chh\bar{a}-b\bar{a}$, to graze; $kh\bar{a}-b\bar{a}-se$, by his coming, because he came; $kh\bar{a}-b\bar{a}-chhy\bar{a}m$, comingwith, when he came; $mrin-b\bar{a}-ri$, filling to, to fill. It will be seen that postpositions can be added to such forms.

The base alone is also used as a verbal noun; thus, chā ā-khām-na, to-eat unable.

Other verbal nouns are formed by adding $l\bar{a}$, nu, sam, and si; thus, $t\bar{a}$ - $l\bar{a}$, to be; $t\bar{a}$ -sam (Darjeeling), to be; $l\bar{a}$ -nu (Darjeeling), to make; $l\bar{a}$ -si, to make.

 $T\bar{a}$ - $l\bar{a}$, to be, is perhaps a genitive. Compare $ng\bar{a}\bar{i}$ $y\bar{a}ng$ - $l\bar{a}$ ansa- $bh\bar{a}g$, me-by gettingof share, the share which I shall get. Forms such as $t\bar{a}$ - $l\bar{a}$ jhin-ji, having been, perhaps
contain the same suffix and a postposition jhin-ji, finishing, from, after. Compare,
however, the suffix $l\bar{a}$ of the present and future.

The form ending in $b\bar{a}$ is also used as a relative participle; thus, $darm\bar{a}-ri$ ti- $b\bar{a}$ $ch\bar{a}kara$ -dugu, wages-in living servants, hired servants.

Another suffix used to form relative participles is $n\bar{a}$; thus, yennā sampati chā-si pin-nā chu yennā kolā, your property having-eaten giving this your son; this your son who wasted your property.

The suffix $n\bar{a}$ is also used to form a kind of adverbial participle. Thus, $kath\bar{a}$ the- $n\bar{a}$ lām- $b\bar{a}$, tale delivering sat, he sat delivering a tale; ti-ki \bar{a} - $t\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{a}$, anything not befalling, without any misfortune.

Other adverbial participles are formed from the various verbal nouns by adding postpositions; thus, $p\bar{a}ng-m\bar{a}$, saying in, while saying; $p\bar{a}ng-min$, while saying; bi-se, by saying, if you say.

Forms such as si- $b\bar{a}ng$, dead; $m\bar{a}$ - $b\bar{a}ng$, lost, probably contain the suffix $b\bar{a}$ mentioned in the preceding. Compare also $t\bar{a}$ -si chi- $b\bar{a}$, having-become sitting, being; rop-si chi- $b\bar{a}$, having-struck sitting, striking.

The usual conjunctive participle ends in si, se, or chhi; thus, $p\bar{a}ng$ -si, having said; $kw\bar{a}n$ -chhi, having put on. A particle $n\bar{a}$ or $n\bar{a}m$ is sometimes added; thus, rup-si- $n\bar{a}n$, gathering; $kh\bar{a}$ -ji- $n\bar{a}m$, coming, in the Darjeeling specimens. The same sources also exhibit forms such as bi-sam and bi-samg, saying; ngyo-chhi-mam, calling, and so forth.

Passive voice.—There is no passive voice. $Ng\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{a}$ rop-ji, I am struck, literally means 'me struck.' The ka in $ng\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{a}$ rop-ka- $l\bar{a}$, I shall be beaten, does not seem to add anything to the meaning. It is perhaps a verb substantive. Compare also ti-si-ka-na, living.

Causative.—There is only one certain instance of a causative in the specimens, viz., $chh\bar{a}$ - $b\bar{a}$, to graze. It is formed from $ch\bar{a}$ - $b\bar{a}$, to eat, by aspirating the initial consonant.

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Negative particle.—The negative particle is a prefixed \bar{a} , and ni or na is usually added to the base; thus, \bar{a} -pin-ni, did not give; \bar{a} -yo-na, did not get. In chhyāng-do- $l\bar{a}$, did not transgress, the negative particle must be contained in the o preceding the $l\bar{a}$, or else chhyāng-do- $l\bar{a}$ means 'obeyed.'

Note forms such as $kr\bar{a}$ - $b\bar{a}$ \bar{a} -hin, crying was-not, I did not cry, where the negative has been prefixed to the auxiliary and not to the principal verb.

Order of words.—The usual order of words is subject, object, verb.

For further details the student is referred to the specimens which follow. The first is a version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son which has been kindly forwarded from the Nepal Darbar. The second is a version of a well-known popular tale which has been taken down in Darjeeling. A list of Standard Words and Phrases from the Nepal Darbar will be found on pp. 254 and ff.

[No. 18.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP. MURMI.

SPECIMEN I.

(FROM NEPAL DARBAR.)

ngi kolā mu-bā. Yāgār-gi mhi-khā-lā Ngi-madhye chang-ba-se āp-tā Some-one twoTwo-among younger-by father-toman-of 80**n8** were. pān-ji, 'ngāi yāng-lā ansa-bhāg ngā-tā pingo.' Āp-se ansa said. 'me-by getting-of share-portion me-to give.' Father-by share chhutyap-la-si pin-ji. Tire-nire lichchhā chāng-bā jā-se kyangno dhan separated-making gave. Some-time after younger son-by allproperty thārĩ rup-si-jin-ji pardes ni-ji. The-ri moja-la-si ti-si-kana gathering far foreign-country went. There merry-making living ansa-bhāg-lā sampati kyangno rhāng-lā udab-lā-si, sampati kharchaself-of share-portion-of property allspent-making, property expendedthe-klāā-ri nhāchyã anikāl lā-si-jin-ji tā-ji. The-ta khāsiman tā-ji. made-having that-place-in bigfamine fell. Him-to distressfell. glāgirin The des-la yāmbunāg-ri-chi-bā ni-si The gi ti-ji. That country-of with one citizen going stayed. That. bu-ri guṇdi chhā-bā yāmbunāgri-chi-bā-se the-tā rāng-lā gyāţţī lhābāb-tā-ii. field-in himswine feeding work-in citizen-by own engaged. ā-pin-ni. Kāl-chhe-nu The-se gundi-se ti-ki-no chā-se pol-bā-se-no Anyone-by anything not-gave. Him-by swine-by having-eaten husks-with-even. mrin-ba-ri rhāng-lā pho ā-yo-na. Chetap ta-si-jin-ji pāngī là-ii, not-got. become-having self-of to-fill Sense belly to-say began. 'nga-lā āp-lā prasasta gheng $ch\bar{a}$ ā-khām-na leng yāng-bā dher 'my father-of much breadto-eat not-able to-spare getting many darmā-ri-ti-bā chākara-dugu mu-lā; si-la-ji. ngā phāyen-ji Ngā rê-chhi I \boldsymbol{I} wages-in-living servants are; hungering die. rising "ābā. lā rhāng-lā ābā chhyām ni-si. ďě νe thā-ri ngai pāp. to"father, God with thee father go**i**ng, 0% me-bu sinsobhā ā-tā-ni. lā-ji. Ngā kolā pāng-bā-ri Ngā-tā rhāng-lā ye-lā darmādid. I worthy not-am. Mе self-of thyson to-say wageslā-o," ti-ba chākara rhāngbal pāng-si pāng-lā,' bhi-si re-si rhāng-lā make." saying shall-say,' living servant like saying rising ovonThe kolā dherna thāring mu-bā the-la ni-ji. āp-se mrang-si That far his father-by father's went. very 80n was seeing VOL. III, PART I. 2 B 2

davā lā-si yar-si ni-si ${f the}$ -lā khāre-ri ankamāl lā-si mwai thung-ji. pity doing running going hisneck-on embrace doingkiss drank. 'ye Kolā-se āp-tā pāng-ji, ābā. lā dĕ mukhyã-ji ve-lā pāp Son-by father-to said, O father, God and your presence-in lā-ji. Ngā ye-lā kolā pāng-ba-ri sobhā ā-tā-ni.' Tara ābā-se rhāng-lā did.I not-am.' But father-by thysonto-say worthy own chākara-tā pāng-ji, 'asal kwăn bā-si chu-tā kwān-chhi pino; hyā-ri servants-to said, ' good clothbringing this-to putting-on give; hand-on gode-ri lakam-nun kwän-chhi pino. Ngälje chä-si thung-si majā ring and feet-on shoes-also putting give. Us-by eating drinking merry laī. Tikthe ngā-lā kolā si-bāng mu-bā, bi-se. pheri so-ii; shall-make. Why saying, that my80n deadwas, again revived; mā-bāng mu-bā, pheri yāng-ji,' pāng-ji. Then-jyāpā ānanda lā-ji. lost*10α8*, again was-found,' said.Theyjoymade.

bu-ri mu-bā. The-lā theb-jā kolā dim-lā ngām-ri dho-khā-ji, Khā-ji, elder 80n field-inwas. Came, house-of neurarrived. bāja ďě nāch-lā sora the-ji. Yāgār-ki chākara-tā nhyo-si. ' the and dance-of sound heard. Some servant-to music asking, ' that ki-ni?' pāng-si, 'ye-lā ālā khā-ji; ti-ki ā-tā-nā khā-bā-se. what-is?' saying, brother came; anything not-befalling coming-because, ' thy lā-ji,' chākara-se pāng-bā. bhivennā āp-se bhoj The bhomo-ä-si father-by feast also made,' servant-by said. your He anger-coming dim-āng-ri ā-ni-ni. The-lā ābā pheriāb ā-si the-ta bol lā-ji. house-into not-went. Hisfather outside him-to entreaty made. coming pin-ji, 'pāng-go, chodeyelā The-se āp-tā iwāb barkha yenji ye-lā Him-by father-to answer gave, 'look, so-many years since your khāimāye-no ye-lā bhajan chhyangdo-lā. Te-pa-ni tahal lā-se yen-chhe doing ever-even your word not-transgressed. serv**i**ce Stillyou-by khāi-mā-ye-no ngā-tā rhāng-lā rho din-chhyām majā lā-ba-ri pāthā ever-even me-to owncompanions withmerry to-make ā-pin-ni. Besyā-kidi gi dentisi yennā $\mathbf{sampati}$ chā-si pin-nā chu **Harlots** one not-gavest. with living your property eating giving this kolā khā-bā-chhyām vennā ye-se the-lā nimdi-ri bhoj lā-ji. Taba coming-on your son you-by hissake-for feastgave.' Then ābā-se pāng-ji, 'ye kolā, yе satana de-chhyam ngā mu-lā. Ngā-lā father-by said, 0 80n. you always with me are. Mine ye-lā-ke. Ngān-chhe majā-harkha mu-lā kyong-no khālāng lā-si manāsib allthine-is. whatfeast-merry making $U_{\mathcal{E}}$ by proper ta-si: tita bi-se. chu ye-lā ālā si-bang mu-la, pheri so-ji; why saying, thisyour brother deadwas, again revived: mā-bāng mu-lā, pheri yāng-ji.' lost was, again was-found.

[No. 19.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

MURMI.

SPECIMEN II.

A POPULAR TALE.

(DISTRICT DARJEELING.)

Kõī muluk-ri gik molbi mu-bā. Hochchhe adhan $\mathbf{m}\mathbf{i}$ rup-si-na Some country-in one Maulwi Him-by always men gathering was. the-nā lām-bā. Hoju kathā sabhā-ri tire kathā ngyām-bā mi-ri lecture delivering lived. Thatassembly-in once talehearing men-in wang-ji. Ochhem molbi-se pāng-mā krābai hot-tā gik-ri molbi-se $t\bar{a}m$ Then Maulwi-by one-in Maulwi-by talesaying crying entered. him-to ngyo-chhi-mam ngyok-chhim, 'ai tik-tā krā-bā?' Hoju mi-se pāng-jim, 'you wherefore cry? That said, calling asked, man-by 'ngāi jik mlāngai $r\bar{a}$ nā-bā mu-bā. Hojo si-bā dher-nu $\mathbf{r}\mathbf{e}$ tā-ji, *wα8*. That diedbecame. · me-by one black goatkeeping many days mu-bā. Chāro chā-mā yong-ji-m. Ai tām Hot-la rheng-bā dārī Grass eating moved. Thee-by lecture long beard' was. Itskrā-bā. Ai-lā dārī yong-mā dānbā khā-ji-nām ai-lā pāng-min moving-in recollection coming cried. Thu beard saying-in thyOchhem hojo molbi-dā ā-hin,' bi-si uttar pin-jim. krā-bā tām-se not, Then thatMaulwi-to answerlecture-from crying saying gave. bi-sam, molbi-lā mu-bā khā-jim, tik-tā ās jo hochchhe sāran petpā wherefore saying, Maulwi-of hope came, 10a8 him-by muchshame nichchhe kathā ngyāng-nu lā-ji bi-sem. Hojā molbi-se do-si jyābā hearing didsaying. That from Maulwi-by arriving lecture goodsabhā-jammā lā-nu ā-tā-ni. do-si arriving gathering to-make not-fell.

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

In a certain country there once lived a Maulwi who was always gathering people and preaching. Some day one of his hearers went on crying during his lecture. The Maulwi then called him and asked him why he cried. Said the man, 'I once had a black goat. It is a long time since it died. It had a long beard, which used to wag up and down when it went about eating grass. Seeing your beard wag up and down during the lecture I was reminded of the goat. That was the reason why I cried. It was not on account of your lecture.' The Maulwi was much ashamed because he had attributed the crying to his good lecture. From that time he ceased to lecture.

SUNWĀR OR SUNUWĀR.

The Sunwars are a cultivating tribe of Nepal. Like the Magars, Gurungs, and Khas, they are considered as belonging to the class called Mukhya, or chief. They say that they came originally from Simungarh near Bara Chhatri in Western Nepal. On their wandering east they came to Chuplu on the Likhukhola river and took possession of it. Makwani Raja was then ruler of Eastern Nepal. Likhukhola and Khuntikhola are now the main settlements of the tribe.

Sir Herbert Risley, from whose *Tribes and Castes of Bengal* these notes have been taken, further remarks that the Sunwars intermarry with Magars and Gurungs, though they theoretically form one endogamous group.

Sunwars are also found outside Nepal in Sikkim and Darjeeling, and at the last Census some speakers were also returned from Assam.

No information is available regarding the number of Sunwars in Nepal. According to local information collected for the purposes of this Survey the figures for the other districts were as follows:—

Darjeeling Sikkim									
		•							
						Тота	L	•	5,356

The Darjeeling figures also include the speakers of Thami.

The corresponding figures at the last Census of 1901 were as follows:-

Assam		•			•	•		•					259
Jalpaiguri	•		•	•	•	•	•		•	•			36
Darjeeling				• '	•						•		4,425
Sikkim	•		•	•	•	•		•	•	•	•	•	545
										Tora	L	•	5,265

The Assam figures have been returned under the head of 'Sunwār or Thami,' and it is not certain that they should all be shown under Sunwār. They are relatively most numerous in Lakhimpur (52) and the Lushai Hills (43). In other districts their number is quite unimportant.

A version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son in the Sunwar dialect has been received from the Nepal Darbar. It makes the impression of a word for word translation of the English text. A list of Standard Words and Phrases has been forwarded from Darjeeling. It shows that the version of the Parable cannot represent the dialect with fidelity. Above all, the order of words, which in the Parable is almost the same as in English, in the list agrees with that prevailing in other Tibeto-Burman languages. Our materials for describing the Sunwar dialect are, accordingly, rather unsatisfactory. They can, however, to a certain extent be supplemented from the list of words published by Hodgson.

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AUTHORITIES-

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Beames, J.,—Outlines of Indian Philology, with a map shewing the distribution of Indian Languages. . Calcutta, 1867. Appendix A contains the numerals in Sunwar, etc.

HUNTER, W. W., -A Comparative Dictionary of the Languages of India and High Asia. London, 1868.

Our materials are not sufficient for a full description of the Sunwar dialect. It will not be possible to give more than a rapid sketch of some of the most salient characteristics of Sunwar grammar. Hodgson described Sunwar as a dialect of the pronominalized type. This statement does not appear to be borne out by the specimens prepared for the purposes of this Survey.

Pronunciation.—Short final vowels are apparently often dropped. Thus, popo, father; $pop-k\bar{a}$, of the father; $b\bar{a}-t$ and $b\bar{a}-ta$, was, and so on.

There are not many instances of compound consonants. Compare $khru\bar{\imath}$, tooth; bloinsā, alive. A short vowel is sometimes inserted in order to make the enunciation easier; thus, sunvār and sunuvār; kuchmi and kuchumi, a bitch. In most cases, old compounds have apparently been simplified; thus, sat, Tibetan gsod, kill; bā, Tibetan bya, bird. It is, however, difficult to compare Sunwār and Tibetan with regard to the phonetical system of the two forms of speech, because the vocabulary differs to a considerable extent. In this respect Sunwār often agrees with Himalayan dialects such as Kanāwarī, Kanāshī, Manchāṭī, and so on. Compare pīt, Kanāwarī phī, bring; jā, Kanāwarī jā, arrive; gi, Kanāwarī kē, give; la, Manchat il, go; gui, Kanāwarī gud, hand; pīyā, Chaudāngsī pisyā, head; sharā, Bunān shrangs, horse, and so on. This state of affairs points to the conclusion that Sunwār has once been a dialect of the same complex type as Kanāwarī.

There are some instances of interchange between different consonants; thus, tup-u, beat; tum-na-tum, beating. It is not, however, possible to lay down fixed rules regulating such changes.

Nouns.—A prefix \bar{a} is common in nouns denoting relationship; thus, \bar{a} - $m\bar{a}$, mother; \bar{a} - $l\bar{a}$, sister. This \bar{a} is probably originally a demonstrative pronoun. It is often used as a kind of possessive pronoun. Thus, \bar{a} -lo-mishya nu, his sister with; \bar{a} -tau-ka-le, his-son-to; me \bar{a} -nu, he his-brother, his brother; bushye $shar\bar{a}$ \bar{a} -ngosh-tike, white horse its-saddle, the saddle of the white horse. \bar{A} is sometimes also used where we should expect to find a possessive pronoun of the first person; thus, \bar{a} -pop- $k\bar{a}uchh\bar{a}$ \bar{a} -tau, myuncle's son; \bar{a} -maiti, before me. Compare the remarks under the head of pronouns below.

Article.—The numeral $k\bar{a}$, one, is used as an indefinite article. It sometimes precedes and sometimes follows the noun it qualifies; thus, $k\bar{a}$ popo, a father; tami $k\bar{a}$, a daughter. In the specimen the pronoun meko, that, is very commonly used as a definite article. Thus, meko $\bar{a}lane$ tau, the younger son; meko mur-ke sus-ta mer-mi meko $b\bar{a}$ -ri, that man sent him (into) the field, and so on. I do not think that this frequent use of the pronoun meko is in accordance with the actual character of the dialect.

Gender.—The natural gender is distinguished by using different words, or else by adding qualifying words. Thus, popo, father; \bar{a} - $m\bar{a}$, mother: mur, man; mishi mur, woman: $shar\bar{a}$, horse; $shar\bar{a}$ $\tilde{a}mo$, mare: kish-she \bar{a} -po, a male deer; kish-she \bar{a} -mo, a female deer, and so on.

Number.—The plural is not indicated when it appears from the context. The common plural suffix occurs in several different forms such as $po-k\bar{\imath}$, $pu-k\bar{\imath}$, potchi, putchi, patchi, and pati. Thus, $w\bar{a}il\bar{\imath}-po-k\bar{\imath}$, servants; tami-potchi, daughters; mur-patchi, men; mur-pati, they, lit. men.

Case.—To judge from the specimen the base alone, without any suffix or post-position, is freely used to denote the various cases. Thus, nelle ansa sampatī ā-ke, whatever share (of the) property (is) mine; meko lata-hai mere-ke poph, he went (to) his father; meko des, in that country. Commonly, however, postpositions are added.

The subject and the object are not distinguished by means of any suffix. The suffix of the dative is kale, and it is sometimes also added to the object of transitive verbs; thus, $go-mi\ \bar{a}-tau-kale\ karr\bar{a}-mi\ dherai\ tup-t\bar{a}$, me-by his-son-to stripes-with much struck, I have beaten his son with many stripes.

The subject of transitive verbs is, to judge from the specimen, put in the nominative, i.e., no suffix is added. Thus, mere-ke poph āsā-gepto mere-mi, his father divided to him. According to the list of words published by Hodgson, however, there is a suffix mi or me which denotes the agent. Compare go-mi, by me, in the last example but one. The specimen in one place uses ke instead; thus, meko mur-ke sus-ta mer-mi meko bārī, that man sent him to the field. The suffix mi, me also denotes the instrument, and it is, besides, used in order to form a locative or terminative. Thus, ghele-me, with ropes; khī-mi, in the house, into the house.

The suffix of the ablative is $ng\bar{a}$; thus, $pokhri-ng\bar{a}$, from the well. Forms such as pop-ke, from a father, in the list of words, are perhaps genitives.

The suffix of the genitive is ke or $k\bar{a}$; thus, $poph-k\bar{a}$ wāilī- $po-k\bar{i}$, the father's servants; $k\bar{a}$ mur rimsho-ke, of a good man.

Other relations are indicated by adding postpositions. Such are nu, with; $ma-b\bar{a}thu$ and $mo-b\bar{a}$, without; nole, behind; $t\bar{a}$, against; maiti, before; $dat\bar{e}$, between, and so on. In the specimen the postpositions are commonly used as prepositions. I do not think that this use really represents the actual state of affairs.

Adjectives.—Adjectives usually precede, but occasionally also follow the noun they qualify; thus, $\bar{a}lane\ tau$, the younger son; $bushye\ shar\bar{a}$, the white horse; $mur\ k\bar{a}$ $r\bar{\imath}msho$, a good man. The termination so or sho in adjectives such as $r\bar{\imath}m-sho$, good; $ch\bar{\imath}-so$, cold; ho-so, hot; $m\bar{\imath}-so$, ripe; $d\bar{\imath}-so$, sour; ka-so, bitter, and so on, is the suffix of a past participle. Compare the remarks under the head of verbs below.

The particle of comparison seems to be $l\bar{a}$ -bhandā; thus, me \bar{a} -nu me loba misha $l\bar{a}$ -bhandā $l\bar{a}$ -shyo chha, his brother is taller than his sister. Bhandā is the Khas bhandā.

Numerals.—The first numerals are given in the list of words. The forms printed within parentheses have been taken from Hodgson's list. It will be seen that higher numbers are counted in twenties; thus, khāk nishi sasi-kā, twenty two ten-one, fifty. Aryan forms are, however, now commonly used instead.

SUNWĀR. 201

Pronouns.—The following are the personal pronouns:—

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go, I.

$\tilde{a}, \tilde{a}-ke$, my.

ge, ga, thou.

i, \tilde{i}-ke$, ge-ke, thy.

ge-patchi, you.

ge-patchi, you.

ge-patchi, you.

hare, mare, me, he.

hare-ke, mere-ke, merī-ke, his.

hari-patchi, mere-pukī, they.

mur pati-ke, their.
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The suffix $l\bar{a}$ in $go-l\bar{a}$ nang, I am; $ge-l\bar{a}$ $b\bar{a}$ -ngi-de, thou art, is probably an intensifying particle. Mur pati-ke, their, literally means of the men.

Other forms are \tilde{a} -kale, me; go-mi, by me; meko-le and meko-kale, him, and so on. The forms \tilde{a} , my; i and \hat{i} , thy, are used as prefixes. Instead of \tilde{a} we sometimes find \tilde{a} ; thus, \tilde{a} -pop-kāuchhā, my uncle; \tilde{a} -mai-ti, before me. \tilde{A} , however, usually refers to the third person; thus, \tilde{a} -chi-me, on his back. Compare the remarks under the head of nouns above.

Demonstrative pronouns are i-ko, e-ko, this; me-ko, that. Compare also α -ke-ngā, from here; wa-tha, here; $y\bar{e}r\bar{e}$, there.

Interrogative pronouns are su-me, who? $m\bar{a}r$ -me, what? The final me is probably an interrogative particle. Compare su- $k\bar{a}$. whose. An interrogative base ge occurs in forms such as $g\bar{e}$ - $n\bar{a}$, when? $g\bar{e}$ -tha, where? and so forth.

Indefinite pronouns are su-kā, anybody; mār-kā, anything; ge-nā-i, ever.

Verbs.—The Sunwar verb is still in all essential points a noun. The person of the subject is not distinguished in the verb, and verbal tenses are freely used as nouns.

Verb substantive.—Several bases are used as verbs substantive. $B\bar{a}$ seems to be identical with the base $b\bar{a}k$, to sit. It occurs in forms such as $b\bar{a}$ -me, is; $b\bar{a}$ -ngi-di, art; $b\bar{a}$ -t and $b\bar{a}$ -ta, art, is, and so on. Another base in dum, dung or thung. It seems to mean 'to become.' Thus, $k\bar{a}$ theb anīkāl dum-tā, a heavy famine arose; dum-nang, I may be; thung-so-ngā, being-from, having been.

Nang in dum-nang, I may be, only occurs in the first person; thus, go-lā nang, I am, go-patchi nang, we are. It is perhaps connected with na in nawe, to be; go-patchi bā-sho na-ki, we were, and so forth.

A base ni occurs in forms such as tau dish $b\bar{a}$ -ni-mi, sons how-many are? ge-patchi $b\bar{a}$ -ni, you were. It is probably a form of the copula. It should perhaps be compared with ngi in ge- $l\bar{a}$ $b\bar{a}$ -ngi-de, thou art.

There is further a base chha, is. It is apparently identical with tcha in $hare b\bar{a}$ -shotcha, he is. The form chhuu in $ge b\bar{a}$ -sho chhuu, you are, is not certain, the original manuscript being very indistinct. It must, however, be connected with chha, is.

A base me, mi, or mā occurs in forms such as tau dish bā-ni-mi, how many sons are there? iko sharā dushya barshā bā-me, this horse (-of) how-many years are? mere-pu-kī rīm-so pām-tī-me, they made merry; meko-putchi bā-le-mā, they are, and so on. It is possible that we have here to do with more than one base. There is an interrogative particle me, and it is also possible that me is the pronoun of the third person. Forms of this kind are not, in the materials available, used in the first two persons, and they are perhaps remnants of the pronominalized stage of development. It is, however, possible

that the various bases beginning with m in reality belong to a copula. The final we in $ga\ lai-na-we$, thou goest; na-we, be, to be, is perhaps connected.

Other verbs substantive are ho, is; hai, is; thi and thiyo, was, and so on.

The list of words gives the impression of a regular conjugation with different forms for the different persons in the verb substantive. The details will be found in the list itself. I do not think that the dialect really distinguishes the various persons. Forms such as $b\bar{a}$ -t or $b\bar{a}$ -ta, was, are used in the specimen for the second as well as the third person. I do not therefore think it necessary to reproduce all the various forms in this place. I shall only mention that $k\bar{\imath}$ in go-patchi $b\bar{a}$ -sho-na- $k\bar{\imath}$, we were, seems to be connected with $k\bar{\imath}$ in forms such as mere-pu- $k\bar{\imath}$, they.

Finite verb.—Many of the bases of the verb substantive are also used in the conjugation of finite verbs. Our materials are, however, too scanty to give anything like a complete sketch of the state of affairs.

Present.—The most common form of the present tense seems to contain a suffix beginning with n. Thus, go tup-nu, I strike; ge tup-ne, thou strikest; go lai-na, I go; ge lai-na-we, thou goest. This form is also used as a future. Thus, go lāyi-nang, I shall go; denang, I shall say.

Another suffix of the present tense is $p\bar{a}$ or $b\bar{a}$. Thus, $dum-b\bar{a}$, I become; $b\bar{a}-b\bar{a}$, lives; $m\bar{a}r\bar{a}$ $m\bar{a}r-p\bar{a}-me$, what do they do?

The suffix me is used alone in pī-me, comes. Compare also tup-ni-mi, they beat.

The suffix $t\bar{a}$ is sometimes also used with the meaning of a present; thus, go tum-natum $p\bar{a}h$ - $t\bar{a}$, I am beating; $ngoshy\bar{a}$ $b\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{a}$, he is grazing; $b\bar{a}$ -shyo $b\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{a}$, he is sitting.

Compound forms are tai-bā-hai, get, and so on.

Past time.—The suffix ta or $t\bar{a}$ is usually added in order to form a past tense; thus, $p\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{a}$, I did; bloin- $s\bar{a}$ $j\bar{a}$ -t, came alive; den-ta, he said.

Instead of ta we often find ti, te, or to; thus, gap-ti, I have walked; la-te, wentest; ge-ti, gavest; gep-to, gavest, gave, and so forth.

The suffix $p\bar{a}$ is also used in the same way; thus, $l\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{a}$, he went.

In gyābi, boughtest, we apparently have a suffix i.

Compound forms are ho $t\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{a}$, is found; la-ta hai, went; be-so $b\bar{a}t$, had died; $p\bar{a}m$ -ti-me, they made.

It seems probable that none of these forms are peculiar to the past. The suffix so, shyo, $s\bar{a}$, $sh\bar{a}$, on the other hand, appears to be a real suffix of the past. Compare $b\bar{a}$ -shyo $b\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{a}$, having sat down is, he is sitting; go $b\bar{a}$ -sho nang, I was. It is possible that this, or a similar, suffix is contained in forms such as $r\bar{s}m$ -so- $p\bar{a}$ -s-to, pitied.

Future.—It has already been remarked that the present seems to be used as a future. Note also forms such as go tup-ngana, I may beat; go ã-kale tup-cha-mār-bā, I should beat; go-pu-kī māl-bā rīm-so, we should make merry.

Imperative.—The usual suffix of the imperative is u or o. Thus, la-u, go; ja-u; eat; gi-o, give; $p\bar{\imath}t-o$, bring. Another imperative suffix seems to be $\bar{\imath}$; thus, $\bar{a}s\bar{a}-ge\bar{\imath}$, divide; $j\bar{a}-\bar{\imath}$, let us eat; $r\bar{\imath}m-so$ $p\bar{a}-\bar{\imath}$, let us make merry. Other imperatives are $t\bar{o}y\bar{a}$, let us drink; $l\bar{a}vo\bar{a}$, go. Negative imperatives are formed by prefixing mo.

Verbal nouns.—The usual verbal noun is formed by adding the suffix $ch\bar{a}$ or $chh\bar{a}$; thus, $i\bar{a}$ - $chh\bar{a}$, to eat; tup-cha, to beat. The various tenses are apparently used as verbal nouns as well. Thus, vo- $d\bar{i}$ -te, in order to tend; $s\bar{i}l$ - $p\bar{a}$ -to, dancing.

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Participles.—The bases of the various tenses are also used as participles; thus, $j\bar{a}$ -teh, arriving; dor-sā, running; $l\bar{a}$ -sā, returning; $j\bar{a}m$ -so, lost; $t\bar{a}$ -siā, getting; $r\bar{i}m$ -so pu-sā, well doing, safely; $t\bar{a}$ -tā, getting; la-tā, gone, and so forth. A past participle is also formed by adding se or she; thus, ma bā-se, not staying. Compare tup-seh- $ng\bar{a}$ - $m\bar{s}$, having struck. Other participles are tum-na-tum, beating; $blet\bar{a}$ - $v\bar{a}$, calling.

Negative particle.—The negative particle is ma or mu; thus, ma $b\bar{a}$ -se, not staying; ma-tang, not got; ma dum- $b\bar{a}$, I do not become, I am not worthy; $j\bar{a}$ - $chh\bar{a}$ mu- $b\bar{a}$, food not-being, without food. Note $kh\bar{i}go$ - $m\bar{a}$ - $v\bar{a}$, did not enter; $a\bar{i}so$ - $m\bar{a}$ - $b\bar{i}s$, did not disobey.

Interrogative particle.—There seems to be an interrogative particle me; compare su-me, who? mār-me, what? and the verbal forms ending in me or mi.

Order of words.—The usual order of words in the list of words and phrases is subject, object, verb. In the specimen, on the other hand, we find quite a different arrangement, viz., subject, verb, object. Adjectives and numerals usually precede the qualified noun. The list of words uses postpositions, the specimen generally prepositions, and so forth. If the order of words in the specimen were correct, Sunwar would have to be considered as a form of speech between the Tibeto-Burman and Tai groups. It has, however, already been remarked that the state of affairs in the specimen is probably due to a too close adhesion to the English original.

For further details the student is referred to the specimen which follows and to the list of words. The materials are very unsatisfactory. They seem to snow that Sunwar is now a dialect of the simple non-pronominalized type. It is, however, possible that better materials would show that it is still, as Hodgson described it, a complex, pronominalized, form of speech, and the remarks made above are given with great diffidence.

[No. 20.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

SUNWĀRĪ.

(NEPAL.)

Alane Kā mur-ke bāt nīsī tau. den-ta tau mere-ke poph. One Younger man-of were twosons. told80n. hisfather. ã-ke. 'āsā-geī nelle sampati Tab ansa mere-ke poph āsā-gep-to 'divide-give whatever share property Then mine. hisfather divided mere-mi. Nole mere-ke poph bāt āsā-geī mere-ke sampatī, meko him-to. After hisfather(-by)divided washis property, thatālane tau bäse dīn mu sus khī-mī lata-hai kã nguni des small802 dwelling many notdays house-in went one far country mere-ke meko pāp-to sampatī. Meko des. nole pāp-to mere-ke he wastedhisproperty. That country, after wastedhis kā theb anikāl dum-ta sampati, meko des. Meko bāt iā-chhā thatHe property, one areatfamine occurred country. was food Meko mu-bā. lata-hai kám-pu-chhã kā mur-ke meko des. Meko without. He work-to-do went one man-of thatcountry. That mur-ke sus-ta mer-mi meko hā-rī vodite Meko po. phāsī tā-tā po man-of senthimthat field-in to-feed pigs. He pigs husks gotiangwê, tārī ekoi ma-tang. Meko nole pī-tā ā-chet. 'ã-ke den-tā. but (?) thisnot-got. He when came his-sense. said, " my poph-kā wāilī-pokī tāi-bā-hai sus ja-chhā-ge-chhā: go benang solu. Go servantsaet muchto-eat-to-give; I diehunger. I läyinang ä-ke poph denang, "poph, go pā-tā pāp tā bhagwan-ta shall-go my father shall-say, "father, I didsinagainst God-against gā-tā-rī: aur go ma. dun bā ĩ-ke ĦÃ tau. ã-kale wondiso kā thee-against; I and not become your Make 80n. me asone Tab meko lata-hai mere-ke poph. Mere-ke poph tāsīā mere-mī servant." Then he wenthis father. father His seeing him nguni; rīmso-pās-to mer-mi; dor-sā la-ta. atārdo-ta tārī mere-ke sur far: pitied him; running fell went. on his neck Meko tau den-ta mere-ke puph-pās-to. 'poph. poph. 20 pāp-tā bhagwan kissed. Thatsonsaid his father, father, sinned. I God ī-tā. go ma-dum-bā T-ke tau.' Tab mere-ke poph den tā mere-ke thee-to, and I not-became your 80n. Then his father s rid hie

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mere-nic wāilī-po-kī, 'pīt-o meko khub rīmso-bāt WO aur pheto tārī servants, . 'bring thatvery good-being cloth and put him. on gio $k\bar{a}$ mundrā tārī mere-ke blepchho, aur lito punāī tārī mere-ke give one ring his on finger, andput shoes on hiskhoili; go jāī toyā Ā-ke tau be-so aur rimso-pāi. bāt. aur mul feet: we shall-eat drink and merry-make. My son dead was, and now ho bloinsā-jāt; meko jāmso tā-tā.' thiyo, aur ho Tab mere-puki became alive: he lost was, and 18 found. Then they rimso pamtime. well made.

Meko belā meko theba tau bāt meko bārī. Meko iäteh nëhta That time that big80n was thatfield. He comina nearneh-to kāmso-pāto aur meko khi-mi, sīl-pāto. Meko bletāwā kā wäilī, and dancing. that house-to, heard music Hе calling one servant. hīlo-pāp-to mer-mi, 'mārā mār-pā-me ā-ke khi-mi?' Meko wāilī iawāb asked him-to. 'what do house-in?' That servant my answer gep-to, 'Ĩ-ke ālane loba lāsā jāta rimso-pusā. Meko-lāgī ĩ-ke 'your younger brother returning camewell-doing. That-for your kā khāmakhāī. poph ge-ti Tab meko rīs-pāp-to khīgo-mā-wā meko father feast.' Then gave Œ he anger-made not-entered thatkhī-mī. Tab meri-ke jā-ta lungā aur samjhāi-pāp-to bletāwā meko pophThen father house-in. his came out and entreated calling that tau. Meko theba tau den-ta merî-ke poph, 'poph, barkhā sus dum-te That elder son 80n. saidhis father, father, many became years go pā-tā ī-ke kām; aur ge-nā-ī dīso-mā-bīs ĩ-ke hukum. Aur gā did7 your work; andever not-transgressed your order. Andthou chāse-pāṭhā pū-chhā rīmso-pām-tī-mī genā-ī gep-to ã-kale kā ã-ke gavest(-not)ever me-to onegoat-young to-make merry-making Ĩ-ke wārchā. ālane tau taipani meko bā-ta pāp-to nelle meri-ke friends. Your younger 80n althoughhe has wasted allhis sampati, mer-mi $g\bar{a}$ ge-tī kā khāmākhāī.' Tab meko den-ta meri-ke thouh**i**m-to gavest property, a feast.' Then he said his theba tau, sadhai go-nu 'tau. gā bā-ta; aur nelle a-ke sampati ho elder 'son, thou always me-with 80n, art:alland m_{V} property is ĩ-ke. mālbā Go-puki rimso. mar-de T-ke loba beso bā-ta. mul should-make merry, because your brother dead W-e vours. was. now bloin**s**ā iāt; meko jāmso thio. tā-tā.' alive came; he lost was, was-found.

MÃGARĪ.

The Magars are one of the fighting tribes of Nepal. Like the Gurungs, Sunwars, and Khas, they belong to the group known as mukhya, i.e., chief.

The name of the tribe is sometimes spelt Magar, and sometimes Mangar. The latter form is apparently common in Darjeeling. The actual pronunciation is probably Magar, and I have written accordingly, though the true form of the word is not quite certain.

The old home of the Magars are the central and lower parts of the mountains between the Bheri and Marsyandi Rivers. According to Mr. Beames their most eastern village is Tannang, about forty miles west of Khatmandu, and their settlements stretch as far west as the town of Palpa. The most important are Rishing, Giring, Bhirkot, Dhor, and Lamzhang. They are now found over most parts of Nepal, and further in Darjeeling, Sikkim, and other districts of Bengal, and also in Assam, especially in the Naga Hills.

We have no information regarding the number of speakers in Nepal. Mr. Beames' informants estimated the number of the tribe at about 6,000 fighting men. We cannot, however, attach any importance to such estimates. The number of speakers in such districts as fall within the scope of this Survey has been estimated by the local authorities as follows:—

Darjeeling														
Sikkim	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	1,000
											To	TAL		16,979

At the last Census of 1901 the dialect was returned from Assam and the Bengal Presidency. Most of the speakers in Assam were returned from the Naga Hills (659). The Mägars usually adhere to their mother tongue, and do not, like the Gurungs, abandon it in favour of Khas. Thus, of 2,440 Mägars enumerated in Sikkim 2,034 returned Mägar as their parent tongue. The 1901 Census figures for the dialect are as follows:—

Assa	m			•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		1,815
Beng	zal													,
	Jalpa	aiguri	•		•	•	•	•	•		•		3,214	
		eeling	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	11,174	
		tagong		Tract	B	•	•	•		•			25	
		mparan		•	٠		•	•	,	•	•	•	214	
	Sikl	cim	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	2,034	
														16,661
												T	DTAL	18,476

The Magar dialect is relatively well known. A sketch of the grammatical system was published in 1869 by Mr. Beames, and a vocabulary had already been printed by Hodgson. A version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son and a list of Standard Words and Phrases have been kindly prepared for the purposes of this Survey by the Nepal Darbar, and they will be printed below. Another version of the Parable and another list were forwarded from Darjeeling. They represented the same form of speech as the Nepal specimens, and they have not, therefore, been reproduced.

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Beames, J.,—Outlines of Indian Philology, with a map shewing the distribution of Indian Languages. Calcutta, 1867. Appendix A contains numerals, and Appendix B personal pronouns in Magar.

HUNTER, W. W.,—A Comparative Dictionary of the Languages of India and High Asia. London, 1868.

Beames, John,—On the Magar Language of Nepal. Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, New Series, Vol. iv, 1869, pp. 178 and ff.

CAMPBELL, SIE GEORGE, - Specimens of Languages of India. Calcutta, 1874.

The remarks on Magari grammar which follow are based on the materials printed below and on Mr. Beames' sketch, which should be consulted for further details.

Magari has been much influenced by Aryan dialects, especially in vocabulary. Some of the most usual case-suffixes are likewise Aryan. On the whole, however, the general character of the dialect has remained unchanged.

Pronunciation.—Māgarī possesses the vowels a, e, i, o, and u. There is, moreover, an \tilde{o} and an \tilde{u} . These sounds are written in various ways in the specimens. \tilde{O} is described as lying between the \tilde{o} in German 'Höhe' and the eu in German 'feuer.' It occurs in forms such as $ng\tilde{o}$, written ngai, ngei, by me; $kan-k\tilde{o}$, written kan-koi, by us, and so forth. \tilde{U} is of much more frequent occurrence. It is written a, u, iu, io, eo, you, and so on. According to Mr. Beames it occurs in words such as $jy\tilde{a}$ - $ch\tilde{u}$, written $jy\tilde{a}$ -cha, eating; so- $m\tilde{u}$, written so-mu, rising; nung- $n\tilde{u}$, written nung-nu and nung-nai, going; $ch\tilde{u}$, written chiu, dog; $noch\tilde{u}$, written ho-chio, ho-cheo, ho-chyou, his.

I have not ventured to introduce the signs \ddot{o} and \ddot{u} in the specimens, because we must reckon with the possibility of a somewhat different pronunciation in the different districts.

The vowels are sometimes marked as long and sometimes as short. Really long vowels are, however, said to exist only in borrowed words.

The consonantal system is very fully developed. According to Mr. Beames, it comprises the following sounds:—

k, kh, g, gh, ng ch, chh, j, jh, ny ts, tsh, dz t, th, d, dh, n t, th, d, dh, n p, ph, b, bh, m y, r, l, w sh, s, z, h.

The sounds $\underline{\iota s}$, $\underline{\iota s}h$, and \underline{dz} are used in borrowed words; thus, $\underline{\iota s}\bar{a}kar$, a servant; $\underline{\iota s}h\bar{a}n$ -ke, to become; kam- $\underline{dz}aro$, ague. They have been written ch, chh, j, respectively, in the specimens. I have, however, followed Mr. Beames in distinguishing them from the palatals.

Instead of z the specimens write j. I have followed Mr. Beames.

M, n, r, and l are frequently aspirated, and the same is, according to Mr. Beames, the case with all consonants in excited talk; thus, $dh\bar{a}nghonhe$, I see, instead of $d\bar{a}ngone$.

The cerebrals are mostly used in borrowed words. On the other hand, the dentals are said to have the same sound as the English dentals. They are accordingly constantly replaced by cerebrals.

Article.—There are no articles, but the numeral kat, one, is used as an indefinite article. Thus, kat <u>ts</u>ākar, a servant.

Nouns.—The prefix mi is common in words denoting parts of the body; thus, ngo mi-talu, my head. It also occurs in words such as mi-zā, son; mi-ris, anger. It is probably a demonstrative pronoun. Another prefix ar occurs in forms such as ar-min, name.

Gender.—The natural gender is distinguished by using different words or by adding qualifying affixes; thus, bhar-mi, man; māhazā. woman: thor, bull; nyet, cow: chü, dog; chū-mān, or, chū chhauri, bitch: len-zā mi-zā, son; māsto mi-zā, daughter: dārhyā mirga, a male deer; murli mirgā, a female deer.

Number.—The plural is not marked if it appears from the context. If it is necessary to mark it, words such as pattā, all; haru, all, are added. Thus, im pattā, houses; bai haru, fathers. Some lists also contain forms such as masto-ko, women; ghorā-ko, horses.

Case.—The subject of intransitive verbs and the object are not distinguished by any suffix. The dative suffix ke or $k\bar{\imath}$ is, however, often used to denote the object; thus, ho-ch $\ddot{\imath}$ $mi-z\bar{a}$ -ko $ng\ddot{o}$ $d\bar{a}thuk-\bar{a}$, his son-to me-by struck, I have beaten his son. The suffix ke, $k\bar{\imath}$, is probably Aryan.

The suffix of the case of the agent, which is used to denote the subject of transitive verbs, is e or i; thus, bhar-mi-y-e, by a man; mi-za-i, by the son. After vowels this suffix is occasionally dropped, or, rather, it is contracted into one sound with the preceding vowel; thus, bai, by the father.

The suffix of the dative is ki or ke, as has been already remarked. Na or nang is occasionally added, apparently without adding anything to the meaning; thus, kat bai-ki-nang, to a father.

The suffix of the genitive is o or u; thus, bay-o, of a father; $des-\tilde{u}$, of a country. A preceding vowel is sometimes contracted into one sound with this suffix. Thus, mi-za-u and mi-zo, of a child. Sometimes also a k is inserted; thus, $mi-z\bar{a}-ko$, of a child. In forms such as bhar-mi-kung, of a man, the final vowel has been accompanied by a nasalization.

The suffix of the locative is ang; thus, im-ang, in the house.

Other relations are indicated by adding postpositions. Such are ing, from; $t\bar{a}ki$, $t\bar{a}king$, on; $l\bar{u}ki$, from; $kh\bar{a}t\bar{a}$, with, near; $s\bar{a}thang$, with; $l\bar{a}i$, to; dckhi, from; nhung-lak, behind; $mh\bar{a}ke$ and $mh\bar{a}g-l\bar{a}g$, under, and so forth.

Adjectives.—Adjectives precede the noun they qualify in the nominative. They very often end in the suffix *chii*, which is usually written *cha* or *chha*, in the specimens; thus, *karang-chii*, big.

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The particle of comparison is denang; thus, hochü bhai hochü bahini denang ghyān-chü le, his brother his sister than tall is, his brother is taller than his sister.

Numerals.—The first numerals are given in the list of words. 'Six' and following are Aryan loan-words. Numerals precede the word they qualify.

Pronouns.—The following are the personal pronouns:—

		I.	We.	Thou.	You.	He.	They.
Nom.	•	ngā	kān, kān-ko	nāng	nāko nā-koi	hosai, hos	hos-ko hosruk.
Agent Genitive		ngö, ngei ngao, ngo	kān-e, kān-koi kān-ung	nang-e, nö nang-o, nūwo	na-kor nākung	hochü	hos-kung, hosruk-ung.

Other forms are $k\bar{a}n$ -kurik, we; $n\bar{a}ng$ -kurik, you; $n\bar{a}ko$ and $n\bar{a}kun$, you, honorific; $n\bar{a}$ -kruk, you (plural), and so forth.

Demonstrative pronouns are is and isai, this; ās and āsai, that. Hos, he, is also used as a demonstrative pronoun.

Interrogative pronouns are su, who? kos, which? hi, what? kurik, how many? Indefinite pronouns are formed by adding the indefinite particle ra to interrogatives; thus, su-ye-ra, by any one; hi-ra, anything.

There are no relative pronouns. The Aryan je is sometimes used. It is, however, combined with the relative participle, and not with the finite tenses of the verb. Thus, ngou je le-cha, mine what being, all that is mine.

Note finally the reflexive pronoun laho, own.

Verbs.—The verb is still in all essential points a noun. There is no difference for person. A suffix s is, it is true, often added in the second person; thus, nang nung-le and nang nung-les, thou goest. The use of this s is not, however, regulated by any fixed rules, and it gives the impression of being an Aryan loan.

Verb substantive.—The usual verb substantive is le or le- $s\bar{a}$, past $ley\bar{a}$ or $l\bar{a}$. A compound form is \bar{a} -le, is, which is also used as a future. Other forms are supplied from the base $\underline{tsh\bar{a}n}$, to be, to become, which is borrowed from Naipālī chha; thus, $ng\bar{a}$ $\underline{tsh\bar{a}n}$ -ki hik-le, I can be, I may be.

Finite verb.—The verb substantive is extensively used in the formation of the various tenses of finite verbs.

Present time.—The usual form of the present tense is a compound, he verb substantive being added to the base; thus, \tilde{u} -le, he lives; $d\tilde{a}thuk$ -le, I strike. Instead of le we also find ne; thus, $\underline{ts}h\tilde{a}n$ -ne, he is. A compound present is formed by adding m-ne or mi-ne, i.e., the verb substantive and the suffix of the conjunctive participle. Thus, ra-m-ne, he comes; o-mi-ne, he is sitting. Mr. Beames gives mo-ne, or, after consonants, o-ne, instead, and calls this form an acrist because it is used with reference to past, present, or future occurrences. Thus, chi-ni hos-ehi-ra $m\bar{a}$ $ja\bar{i}$ -mo-ne, to-day he has eaten nothing; $kul\bar{a}g$ ngu-mo-ne, where do you live? nung- $ch\bar{u}$ dangone, I will go and see.

Mr. Beames also mentions a suffix lang or nang; thus, nang-ke sāt-nang, I will strike you; rākh-lang, I bring.

According to the same authority the base is sometimes also used alone as a present; thus, jaï ki ma jaï, will you eat or not?

Past time.—It has already been remarked that forms such as $n\bar{a}k$ -di-m-ne, transgressed; si-ma-ne, was dead, and so forth, are indefinite with regard to time. Forms such as $mh\bar{a}$ -le, was lost, are properly forms of the present. $S\tilde{i}$ -me, was dead, is perhaps derived from sim-ne. Nung-ne, went, and similar forms, probably also belong to the present time. The usual suffix of past time, on the other hand, is \bar{a} ; thus, $z\bar{a}t$ - \bar{a} , did; nung- \bar{a} , went; de-y- \bar{a} , said, and so forth.

Forms such as \tilde{u} -le-s \bar{a} , lived; nung-le-s \bar{a} , went, are apparently also only used with the meaning of a past.

 $Y\bar{a}$ -nhi, gave, is probably another form of the present ya-ne, gives.

A real past is apparently the form <u>ts</u>hān-sī, it became.

Future.—The present is commonly used as a future; thus, $d\bar{a}thuk$ -le, I shall beat. There seems to be, besides a future suffix, ing; thus, $lou\ k\bar{a}n\ moja\ z\bar{a}t$ -ing, well we shall make merry. A future is also formed by prefixing \bar{a} and suffixing e; thus, \bar{a} -de-y-e, I shall say; \bar{a} - $r\bar{a}kh$ -e, shall bring.

Imperative.—The suffix of the imperative is o; thus, $r\bar{a}kh$ -o, bring. Bases ending in \bar{a} change this \bar{a} to o or e and insert an h before o, or else a-o becomes o; thus, $y\bar{a}$ -ke, to give; yo-h-o, ye-h-o, and yo, give.

A more polite imperative is formed by adding the suffix ni; thus, $y\bar{a}$ -ni, give; kher-ni, run. Instead of ni we also find $n\bar{a}$; thus, $r\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{a}$, come.

Verbal nouns and participles.—The usual verbal noun is formed by adding the suffix ki or ke; thus, $y\bar{a}$ -ke, to give; $z\bar{a}t$ -ki, to do. Forms such as $y\bar{a}$ - $kh\bar{\imath}$, to give, show the common aspiration of the initial consonant. An infinitive of purpose is formed by adding lai to this form; thus, was- $k\bar{\imath}$ -lai, in order to tend.

Relative participles are formed by adding the suffix chü, which is usually written cha in the specimens; thus, yā-khī parī-cha ansa, to-give proper-being share, the share which I shall get; hose dhut tsān-chū kurek din tsan-ā, that matter happening howmany days became? how long ago was it?

This form is sometimes also used as a verbal noun; thus, harkha zāt-cha, to make merry; ku-chi birin-chü āle, whom-by sending may be? who may have sent it? mā mung-a-s dereng nang-ke detachü le, not goest then thee-to beating is, if you do not go you will be punished.

The conjunctive participle is formed by adding $m\ddot{u}$, or, after consonants, $n\ddot{u}$; thus, $y\ddot{a}$ - $m\ddot{u}$, having given; $r\ddot{a}kh$ - $n\ddot{u}$, having brought. Instead of $m\ddot{u}$ we also find mo and mu, and instead of $n\ddot{u}$ the specimens write nu, nai, and so forth. Thus, so-mu, having arisen; $z\ddot{a}t$ -nu, having done; nung-nai le, going is.

An adverbial participle, which also has the meaning of a conjunctive participle, is formed by adding the suffix $n\bar{a}$ or $n\bar{a}ng$; thus, $de-n\bar{a}$, saying; $r\bar{a}-n\bar{a}ng$, on coming.

Passive voice.—There is no passive voice. $Ng\bar{a}$ -ki dung- \bar{a} , I am struck, literally means 'me-to struck.'

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Causative verb.—It is not possible to state the rules regulating the formation of causatives in Mägarī. Some causatives are apparently formed by adding k; thus, $r\bar{a}$ -ke, to come; $r\bar{a}k$ -ke, to bring; $bil\bar{a}k$ -nu, causing to put on, from bilh-ke, to put on.

Negative particle.—The negative particle is a prefixed $m\bar{a}$; thus, $m\bar{a}$ le, I am not; $m\bar{a}$ $y\bar{a}$, thou didst not give.

Order of words.—The usual order of words is subject, object, verb.

For further details the student is referred to Mr. Beames' sketch and to the specimen which follows. A list of Standard Words and Phrases will be found on p. 254 and ff.

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[No. 21.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP. MÄGARI.

(FROM THE NEPAL DARBAR.)

Kat bhar-mi nis mi-zā le-ā. Nis madhyã kānchhā mi-za-i. One man(-of)twosonswere. Twoamong younger son-by, 'ngā-kī vā-khī pari-cha ansa vā-khī-tshān-ni,' de-nā, bai ansa 'me-to to-give required share give-please,' saying, father share chhuțī-dī-mu yā-nhī. Hira din nhuĩg kānchhā mi-zai patta-na dividing gave. Some days after younger son-by allbatal-li-mu los pardes nung-le-sā. Ho-lã u-mu moj-khātā laho gathering far other-country went. There staying luxury-with own ansa-bhāga pattana sampatī kharcha. zāt-nu hek-lesā. Ho-lã krānchha share-portion allproperty expended making finished. There biganikāl pari-nām hos-kī-nã dukha tshān-nā hos des-ii bhar-mi famine arising him-to-also misery becoming that country-of man khātā ũ-le-sā. nung-nu Ho-lã sahar-ũ bhar-mi-ye hos-kī hyagar-ang with going stayed. There town-of man-by him fields-in wak. was-kī-lai di-le-sā. Su-ye-ra hi-ra-na mā he-le-sā. Wak swine watching-for applied. Anyone-by anything-even not gave. Swine ivā-cha bhusi-ye da-na laho tuk rhās-kī mā-din-a. Chete dīs-ทลี eating husks-with even onn belly to-fill not-got. Sense getting de-kī-lai sī-yā, 'nga-u bai tsäkar-e rotī jyā-mu o-na ubarī-seo-lā to-say began, 'my father-of servants-by bread eating even to-spare-is ngai bhusi-ye-o-na tuk rhās-kī mā-din-ā. Ngā rang-si-mu sĩ-le. me-by husks-with-even belly to-fill not-got. I hungering die. Ngā laho bai khātā nung-nu. "ve bai. nāko-khātā ra I own father withgoing, " O father. thee-with and parameśwar-khāţā pāp zāt-nāng, ngā nākũ mizā de-ki lävekű mā-le. God-with sindone-having. Ι thy 8012 to-sau worthy not-am. Ngā-kī laho darmādār tärincha zāt-kī tshān-nī," de-mu so-mu laho Мe own servant like to-make please," saying rising own bai-khātā nung-ā. Dherai los-na le-nang ā-chyou bai dāng-nã dayā father-to went. Very far being his father seeing pity tshān-nu kher-nu' nung-nu ā-chyou gal-ang angkamāla zāt-ā. mwāī jyā. becoming running going hisneck-on embrace did. kissate. Mi·zai bai khātā deyā, 'ye bai, Bhagwan ra nāko khātā Son-by father pāp to said, ' O father, God and thee with sin.

Ngā nākũ lāyekũ zāt-ā $miz\bar{a}$ de-kī mā-le.' laho Tara bai Ι did.thy80n worthy not-am.' But father-by own to-sau tsākar lāī 'sechha deyā, otīn rāk-nu bilāk-nu veho: hos-kī to said, ' good clothsernants bringing putting-on give ; him-on pusāk-nu yeho, hut-äng aguthi hīl-āng juttā bilāk-nu veho. Lon kan puttinghand-on ring give, feet-on shoes puttingWellgive. we gā-mu moja zāt-ing. Hi-kī de-nāng, ie-mu isai ngou mi-zā sī-me. eating drinking merry shall-make. Why saying, thismy 80n died. mhāt-ne, pherī iīb-ā; dīn-ā. de-mu hos-ruk-e ānanda tshān-ā. lived; was-lost, again was-found, saying them-by again jou made.

leyā. Ho-chyou miihāra mi-zā Lhes-nu garh-ang rāh-nāng im elder His80nfield-in was. Returning comina house kherep-tā-rā-nāng ārgā-mu bājā nācha sevā. Kat tsākar-lāī gin-nang. near-coming music dance servant-to calling asking, heard. One bhāī rāhā: kusala ānanda-khātā rāhā. Nākũ hai kat · nākii came; well brother merrily came. Your father-by one 'your mi-ris-e bhitri zāt-ā.' tsākar-e Hochyou diyā. mā-paichhīvā. bhoi made,servant-by sàid. Hisanger-by inside not-entered. feast bāhira kheh-mu hochyou bai bolabintī zāt-ā. bai A-chyou Hochyou fatheroutcoming hisfather entreaty made. HisHisjubāba zāt-ā. 'wos-nī, yiriko barkha tahala bai-khātā samma nākũ `look.tather-to answergave, 80-many years up-to your service nākñ dhut mā nāk-dīm-ne. Nakoi sendana sendana ngā-kī zāt-nu not transgressed. You-by ever-even me-to wordener-even your doing khātā moia khātā kat pāthā una mā-yā. Besvā lāphā for withkidHarlots companions merriment one even not-gavest. sampatī jyā-mu hosai nākũ mi-zā, hochyou lāgi nākoi khātā u-mu living property eating thythee-by histhat 80n, sake-for . withzāt-ā. Tara hochyou bai diyā, 've mi-zā, nāng sadhai bhoia gavest. Buthisfather-by said,0 son. thoualways feast Kān-e ngā-khātān Ngou le-cha pattana āle. le. ie nāgu-na Mine whatallthine-also art. being is.Us-by me-with harkha zāt-cha sechha tshānsī. Hi-kī de-nāng, nāngo zāt-kī moi making goodbecame. Whu saving, thy to-make joy merry jīb-ā; mhā-le, pherī dinhā.' bhai simane, pheri again lived; was-lost, again was-found.' brother died.

NEWĀRĪ.

The Newars were the ruling race in Nepal before the invasion of the Gorkhas, and they still constitute the largest section of the inhabitants of the valley. The inhabitants of Khatmandu are, to a great extent, Gorkhas. In Patan, Bhatgaon, and most of the smaller towns, on the other hand, the Newars form the bulk of the population.

The number of Newars outside the valley of Nepal is small. Most of them have

been returned from Darjeeling and Sikkim. During the

preliminary operations of this Survey the number of speakers
in those districts was estimated by the local authorities as follows:—

Darjeeling .		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	4,979
Sikkim State										
							To	TAL	٠	5,979

At the last Census of 1901, the figures returned under the head of Newari were as follows:—

Bengal P	residen	c y	•		٠			•	•				•	7,491
Jalpa	iguri		•	٠	•	•			•	•	•	1	850	
Darj	eeling	•	•		•	•		•		•	•	5,	570	
Chit	agong	Hill I	racts	•	•	• •	•	•		4	***		15	
	bhum	•	•	•	•	•		•	•	•	•		2	
Sikk	im .	•	•		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	1,	054	
Assam	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	382
											To	TAL	•	7,873

No information is available about the number of speakers in Nepal.

According to Mr. Gait, Newar is a different form of the word Nepal, and Newari accordingly means 'the language of Nepal.' It was the State language of Nepal before the overthrow of the Newar dynasty in 1769.

Buddhism was introduced in Nepal at a very early date. The sacred books of the Nepalese Buddhists were written in Sanskrit, and that language became the principal vehicle of Nepalese literature. Newārī was, however, also used for literary purposes at a comparatively early period. Most Newārī books are, according to Hodgson, translations and comments from and upon the Sanskrit literature current in Nepal. We also find works on the history of the country, Sanskrit-Newārī dictionaries, and so forth, and in some Nepalese plays stage directions are written in Newārī. The oldest Newārī manuscript as yet known was written in the 14th century. It is a Vamśāvali, and chronicles the chief events in the history of Nepal from A.D. 1056 till 1388. We do not know how long before that time Newārī had been used as a literary language, and, on the whole, our knowledge about Newārī literature is very unsatisfactory.

The character used in writing Newari is an Indian one, and it has developed from the old Brahmi alphabet. The first specimen on pp. 221 and ff. will be printed in that character. Hodgson mentions two other alphabets, which he calls Bhanjin Mola and Ranja, respectively. He adds that they are only used in Buddhist books. The late Professor Bendall kindly identified them, the former with the so-called 'hooked-top'

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Nepalese writing of the 12th-16th centuries, and the latter with the straight-topped writing of the same period.

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A version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son and a list of Standard Words and Phrases have been received from the Nepal Darbar. They are the principal foundation of the notes on Newari grammar which follow.

Pronunciation.—The spelling of the specimens is not sufficiently consistent to enable us to decide all details of pronunciation. The vowels a, i, and u are both long and short in the specimens. It is impossible to tell if this state of affairs corresponds to the actual pronunciation. E and o are not marked as long or short. The final e in words such as $k\bar{a}e$ is very short, and sometimes almost inaudible.

In the Newari text ya or ye is often written instead of e; thus, $da-s\tilde{e}$, written da-sya, being; $ba-b\bar{a}-mha-s\tilde{e}$, written $ba-b\bar{a}-mha-sy\tilde{e}$, by the father. The transliterated text does not furnish any clue to the pronunciation of this e. Ya is probably written to show that the e is short.

Similarly o is often interchanged with wa; thus, o-na and wa-na, went. It is probable that wa simply denotes a short o.

Newari possesses hard and soft gutturals, palatals, dentals, and labials. Both the hard and the soft sounds may be either aspirated or unaspirated. Instead of the dentals

we sometimes find cerebrals; thus, jandhu and jandhu, back. It is probable that the use of cerebrals in such cases is merely a mistake.

I do not know how the sound which I have transliterated as an Anunāsika is actually pronounced. It interchanges with a nasal; thus, $j\tilde{\imath}$ and ji-na, by me.

We have no reliable information regarding the use of tones in Newari. The dialect is said to possess the so-called abrupt tone. Hodgson writes *chhi*', one; *ni*', two, and so forth, in which words the sign' probably denotes the abrupt tone. It therefore seems necessary to assume that this tone results from the dropping of a final consonant. Compare Tibetan *gchig*, one; *gnyis*, two. The list of words gives *nasi*, two.

Article.—The numeral chhi, chha-mha, etc., one, is used as an indefinite article; thus, chha-mha manuksha, a man.

Nouns—Gender.—There is no grammatical gender. The natural gender is distinguished by using different words or by adding qualifying affixes. Thus, doh, bull; $s\bar{a}$, cow: dugu, goat; chole, female goat: $b\bar{a}$ $chal\bar{a}$, male deer; $m\bar{a}$ $chal\bar{a}$, female deer: $k\bar{a}e$ $mach\bar{a}$, boy; $mh\bar{a}e$ $mach\bar{a}$, girl.

There are some traces of a distinction being made between animate beings and things. The suffix mha can be added to genitives and adjectives qualifying animate nouns, while gu can be added if the qualified noun denotes a thing. Thus, ji-mha kaka, my uncle; ji-gu osata, my clothes. A similar principle prevails in the Munda languages.

Number.—There are two numbers, the singular and the plural. If it is necessary to distinguish the plural, suffixes such as $p\tilde{\imath}$, pini, pani, and ta, are added. Thus, bau- $p\tilde{\imath}$, fathers; $mhy\bar{a}$ -cha-pini $p\bar{a}ch\tilde{e}$, from daughters; seoka-pani-sena, by the servants; sala-ta, horses. In $bh\tilde{\imath}$ - $p\tilde{\imath}$ $mis\bar{a}$ -ta, good women, both the adjective and the noun have been put in the plural.

Case.—The subject of intransitive verbs and the object are not distinguished by means of any suffix. The object is, however, sometimes put in the dative; thus, ji o- $y\bar{a}$ $k\bar{a}e$ - $y\bar{a}$ -ta tako-masi $d\bar{a}e$ -dhuna, I have beaten his son (lit. to his son) with many stripes.

The subject of transitive verbs is put in the case of the agent. The suffix of that case is na or $n\tilde{a}$, often preceded by another suffix se or sa. Thus, $bab\bar{a}-mha-se-na$, by the father; $desa-b\bar{a}si-n\tilde{a}$, by the citizen. Instead of adding na, the final vowel is often nasalized; thus, $bab\bar{a}-mh\tilde{a}$, by the father; $bab\bar{a}-mha-s\tilde{e}$, by the father.

The same case is also used to denote the instrument, and, further, as an ablative; thus, hima-uã, by means of husks; khipa-tã chiu, bind with ropes; chha-mha bubã, from a father; yānana; sẽ, from a distance. Other ablative suffixes are pāchẽ, li-se, and si-sã.

The suffix of the genitive is $y\bar{a}$; thus, $b\bar{a}u-y\bar{a}$, of a father. The suffixes mha for animate nouns and gu for things can be added to such forms; thus, $chh\tilde{e}-ya-mha$, the person, or animal, of the house; $chh\tilde{e}-ya-gu$, that which belongs to the house. Such forms can be used as adjectives, and the suffixes mha and gu can accordingly be described as genitive suffixes.

The suffix of the dative is ta, which is added to the base or to another suffix s, or else to the genitive; thus, $mhy\bar{a}cha-p\tilde{i}-ta$, to daughters; $bab\bar{a}-y\bar{a}-ta$, to the father; seoka-pani-s-ta, to the servants.

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The suffix of the locative and terminative is sa or $s\tilde{a}$; thus, desa-sa, in a country; $bela-s\tilde{a}$, at the time; tuti-sa, upon his feet.

Other relations are indicated by adding postpositions. Such are ke and $y\bar{a}$ -ke, with; $(y\bar{a}$ -) $kos\tilde{a}$, under; li, on; lione, behind; (o-) $n\tilde{a}p\tilde{a}$, together with; nheone, before, and so forth.

Adjectives.—The adjectives are often used without any suffix; thus, $bh\tilde{i}$ manu- $p\tilde{i}$, good men. If they qualify a noun denoting an animate being the suffixes $dh\tilde{i}$ and mha are often added. In the same way $dh\tilde{a}$ and gu are added if the qualified noun denotes a thing; thus, tuyu-mha sala, the white horse; chiki- $dh\tilde{a}$ -gu $chh\tilde{e}$, in the small house. The suffixes mha and gu can be added to almost any word in order to form possessive adjectives or nouns. Compare ji-mha, ji-gu, mine; sin-ya-gu, the wooden thing; thana-ya-mha, the animate being here; wo-mha, the coming one; $bh\tilde{i}$ -gu, the good thing. We even find forms such as $bab\bar{a}$ -mha, the father.

The particle of comparison is $si-s\tilde{a}$, from, added to the genitive of the compared noun; thus, $o-y\bar{a}$ $kij\bar{a}$ $o-y\bar{a}$ $keh\tilde{e}-y\bar{a}-si-s\tilde{a}$ ta-dhi-ka, his brother is taller than his sister.

Numerals.—The first numerals are given in the list of words. The usual form for 'two' seems to be ni and not nasi. Note also $s\tilde{a}$ -chhi, eleven; $s\tilde{a}$ -nhay, seventeen; ngi-chhi, twenty-one; ngi- $s\bar{a}nha$, thirty; swi-chhi, thirty-one; pi-chhi, forty-one, and so forth.

Generic particles are added to the numerals in order to indicate the nature of the qualified noun. Such particles are mha for human beings; gu for things; $m\bar{a}$ for trees and plants; $p\bar{u}$ for weapons and implements; $ph\bar{o}$ for flowers; $g\bar{o}$ for fruits; nhu for days, and so forth. Thus, $chha-m\bar{a}$ sima, a timber-tree; $chha-p\bar{u}$ $khw\bar{o}n$, a sword, and so forth.

Pronouns.—The following are the personal pronouns:—

```
ji, I.
                                 chha, chhi, thou.
                                                                o, he.
ji-na, j\tilde{i}, by me.
                                 chha-n\tilde{a}, by thee.
                                                                \tilde{o}, by him.
                                 chhã, chhã-gu, chhi-
ji, ji-mha, ji-gu, my.
                                                                o-y\bar{a}, his.
                                    gu, chh\bar{a}-na, thy.
jhi-ji, jhi-p\tilde{i}, we.
                                 chhi-pĩ, you,
                                                                a-p\hat{i}, they.
jhi-ji-sena, ji-mi-se,
                                 chhi-mi-sã, chhim-sẽ,
                                                                a-mi-s\widetilde{a}, a-mi-s\widetilde{e}, by them.
   by us.
                                    by you.
jhi-gu, jhi-p\tilde{i}-gu, our. | chhi-p\tilde{i}-gu, your.
                                                               a-mi-gu, their.
```

Chhi is probably the respectful form. Compare Tibetan khyed. We do not know the difference between jhi-ji and jhi-pi, we. Jhi-ji is used as an inclusive plural in the specimen. Note also thao, own.

Demonstrative pronouns are tho, this; o, that.

Interrogative pronouns are su, who? chhu, what? $chh\bar{a}e$, why? go-mha, which? how many? guli, how much? how many? Indefinite pronouns are formed by adding $n\tilde{a}$ or else by nasalizing the final vowel of the interrogatives; thus, $su\text{-}na\text{-}n\tilde{a}$, by anyone; $chh\tilde{u}$, anything; $go\text{-}bela\text{-}s\tilde{a}$, at any time.

Verbs.—The Newari verb is in all essential features a noun. The various tenses do not differ for person and number, and the subject of transitive verbs is put in the case of the agent.

2 F

Verb substantive.—Several bases are used to form a verb substantive. The most common ones are da or du, kha or khu, and ju. Thus, ji du, I am; o khu and o kha, he is. The form khe in chhu khe, what is the matter? contains a suffix e. See below.

Finite verb.—The Newari verb is not rich in tenses. Many forms can be used to denote both the present and the past. It will, however, be convenient to arrange the forms occurring in the specimens under the usual heads of present, past, and future.

Present time.—The base alone is used as a present tense. Thus, $chh\tilde{a}$ $d\bar{a}$, thou beatest; ji- $p\tilde{i}$ du, we are; $j\tilde{i}$ $d\bar{a}e$ $m\bar{a}$, by-me beating is-required, I should beat.

A common suffix of the present is e or $\bar{\imath}$; thus, $j\tilde{\imath}$ $d\bar{a}$ -e, I strike; ji jue pha-i, I can be. Compare future.

Another suffix, which is used to form present and past tenses, is la or na; thus, ju-la, is; cho-na, sits; $w\bar{a}-na$, goes. It is possible that la and na are originally different suffixes. They are, however, apparently used promiscuously. It is also possible that l and n are originally the final consonants of the base, so that the real suffix is merely a. This a is often long; thus, $d\bar{a}-y\bar{a}$ $cho-n\bar{a}$, I am sitting. It is sometimes also replaced by the suffix e or i, and such forms are apparently never used in the past; thus, $ji-w\bar{a}ne$, I go; $ji-p\tilde{i}$ o-ne, we go; $a-p\tilde{i}$ o-ni, they go.

The suffix na is sometimes also added to the suffix i; thus, ji $siy\bar{i}$ -na, I die, I am dying.

Compound present tenses are cho-nā-o cho-na, sitting sits, he is sitting; $d\bar{a}$ -yā cho-nā, beating sit, I am beating.

Past time.—The base alone is apparently also used to denote past time; thus, ji du, I was.

The suffixes la and na are common with the meaning of past time; thus, o-na and o-la, he went; $d\bar{a}$ - $l\bar{a}$, he struck; $ny\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{a}$, thou boughtest.

The suffix u in ma bi-u, didst not give, is also a general suffix, and it is probably identical with the final u in du, is, and so forth. Compare Tibetan o.

Forms such as $j\tilde{i}$ $d\tilde{a}-y\tilde{a}$, I struck, are probably participles. At all events, a past meaning is not the only one that they have. Compare $j\tilde{i}$ $d\tilde{a}-y\tilde{a}$ cho- $n\tilde{a}$, I am beating.

A real suffix of the past is apparently ta in forms such as $ph\bar{u}$ -ta, wasted; chho-ta, sent.

Compound past tenses are formed by adding auxiliaries to the conjunctive participles. Thus, $y\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{a}o$ cho-na, having done sit, I have done; ju- $y\bar{a}$ cho-na, has become; ma o-se cho-na, not having-gone remained, had not gone.

The verb dhu, to finish, is sometimes added to the verbal noun ending in e in order to form a past tense; thus, $ji d\bar{a}-e dhu-na$, I had beaten.

Future.—The suffix e or i is also used to denote the future; thus, $dh\bar{a}$ -e, I will say; $chh\tilde{a}$ $d\bar{a}i$, thou wilt strike. The future sense can be strengthened by adding tini; thus, ji jue-tini, I shall strike.

Imperative.—The base alone is used as an imperative; thus, na, cat; ti, put.

A suffix u is added in biu, give; chiu, bind.

Forms such as $p\tilde{u}$ -ki, put on; $nhy\bar{a}$ -ta-ki, put on, are perhaps causatives, and contain a suffix i added to the causal suffix ka.

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The suffix nu in $ny\bar{a}$ -si-nu, walk; $y\bar{a}e$ -nu, let us make, is probably also an imperative suffix. It is apparently formed by adding u to the suffix na.

A respectful imperative is biyā di-sã, give please.

The negative imperative is formed by prefixing matē. Mr. Wright gives matē duḥkha tāya (i.e. tāe), do not be cast down.

Verbal nouns and participles.—The most usual verbal noun ends in e; thus, na-e, to eat; $y\bar{a}$ -e, to do; $dh\bar{a}$ -e- $tun\bar{u}$, saying after, after he had said; $y\bar{a}e$ -ta, making-for, to make.

It will be seen that this is the form commonly used to denote present and future times.

It has already been mentioned that the Newäri verb is a noun. The various tenses can accordingly be used as nouns. Compare $dh\bar{a}$ -la- $s\bar{a}$, saying in, if you say; $na\bar{i}$ -gu hima, eating husks, the husks which were eaten; ji-ke du-gu, me-with being-thing, what is mine; thane, to fill; o- $y\bar{a}$ nimirtina, coming-reason, because he came, and so forth.

Various kinds of participles are formed by adding postpositions or qualifying suffixes to verbal nouns.

The suffixes mha and gu can be used in order to form relative participles and nouns of agency referring to animate beings and things respectively; thus, si-ka-mha, the dead one; ji-ke du-gu, me-with being-thing, what is mine.

The suffix gu sometimes also forms a conjunctive participle; thus, jue $dh\tilde{u}$ -gu, having been. I have not seen any examples of the use of this participle.

The most common conjunctive participle is formed by adding the postposition o to verbal nouns. Thus, $o-n\bar{a}-o$, going; $kha-n\bar{a}-o$, seeing. O seems to mean 'with' and its use corresponds to that of Tibetan dang. It also occurs in forms such as o-o bela-sa, coming-with time-at, when he came. Compare ji-o $n\bar{a}p\hat{a}$, me-with together, together with me.

A conjunctive participle is also formed by adding ka; thus, dha-ka, saying; $bw\bar{a}-ka$, running. The suffix $y\bar{a}$ is apparently used in a similar way; thus, $d\bar{a}-y\bar{a}$, having struck.

It has already been remarked that the various tenses are in reality verbal nouns. They can often also be translated as participles; thus, le-na du, leaving is, something is left; langhanā yā-nā ma du, transgressing doing not is, no transgressing has been done.

A past participle seems to be formed by adding se or $s\tilde{e}$; thus, o-se cho-na, gone were, went; $da-s\tilde{e}$ cho-na, become were, became. Such forms are properly verbal nouns of the past. Compare $kha-chhi-kh\bar{a}-ch\bar{a}$ $da-s\tilde{e}-li$, some-time becoming-on, after some time.

Passive voice.—There is no passive voice. Ji-ta dā-yā cho-na, I am struck, literally means 'me-to striking is.'

Causative.—There is apparently a causative suffix ka. Thus, na, eat; bhoe na - ka - la, feast to-eat-causedest, thou gavest a feast; $dh\bar{a}e - ke$, to cause to say, to be called. Si-ka-mha, he who was dead; phu - ku - mha, he who wasted, are apparently formed from such causative bases.

Some causatives are apparently formed by hardening the initial consonant. Professor Conrady gives da-e, to be; ta-e, to make: $b\bar{a}$, half; $p\bar{a}$, cut, etc.

Negative particle.—The negative particle is a prefixed ma; thus, jogya ma ju-la, worthy not am; ma biu, didst not give.

Order of words.—The regular order of words is subject, object, verb.

For further details the student is referred to the specimen which follows, to the list of Standard Words and Phrases on pp. 255 and ff., and to the works mentioned under the head of authorities. The specimen has been printed both in ordinary Newari and in transliteration. In the former text ya is commonly written instead of e, and wa instead of o.

[No. 22.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP. NEWARI.

(NEPAL.)

कु ऋम नुस्रया काय मचा ती ऋदम्भै भा ता विकारि ऋकार्य थड भवताया के निम् अम् लग निमावियादिस्यक धानधायगुरी वबाकी अंस्ताम विवासिके घाता दसी विध्यम् त्यां श्रेम ता गता माथ पर अभागा मा जां चा मा अ थडभम् स्पिति दक्षे क्रा क्षिव तम् अ दम्म्याम्भिन्यान्भिकाल-त्र्याभवनाज्य कर्भश्रायान्यम् कुल दे म्वांम् या थाम् आनाउप क्रद म्वामित का अध कत सी गास्ति व मिर्म थडांग् पाच थते मद्याड्य सामा अञ्ज अयात स्नान की मवियाडा अजित्रास्वं जि स्वयदा याडा-मनतः राज पतः कि-वता या-धाम्-ग्राजे मिक मुक्त पति र्न-यक्ष-तयानी सम्बु जिथालमा पिलातामा मिल्ल् नाञा अ भि बवाया-ध्रम्मु अत्राक्ष क्ष्मिक की मू दूष्ट्रभन्न कि न-पाप यानाडभ-भाउभ-द्वन-कार्यधायक आष्य ति अत्र जार्भ डभक कम

थं- जित-याय-माल क्षाय धक्- थड़ा-ववाया धम् इन वे तम् व बा क्रमी थडाकाय डाडाम् यातन्त्रम् खना ड्य-कन्ता चा या इय-वाक अता अ गल पगम् घम् प्रताअ चुपानना सम व अप ववायात धाल-आववा व्भानवा दूरभान कत उपनम् जिन पाप-याताक्ष आक्ष क्रत्रक्त कार्य- धायद आय जि मज्ञल धक धा जा श्मित्र थड्न काय या रवं न नाड्न ववा इत्सं शड्न स्पडनक पाने मु धाज त्रिम् उपमा ह्या आ धायात पुँदि। ध्यया नाहाति स र्भाम् तिमः लाकी द्वा मिका मिकि म्या गार्थ त्यायेका अन्यां यार्थ ना कार्य धालमा जिकारीं भीकाका म्वाना ४५ ४५ त- नना ३५ ची न इस ज्याद्र द्राज धक धयाद्र हाय त्यायका द्रान मनगयान भवं गम् लिक का कार्य थड्पम् ब्रेम् चा नां चानक थड्प के म्डेपडा निम वारान पारवनया म्ल गाया अक्र क्ष स्प अक् या गर्मल ता अ थानकुष्व धकः तना स्प्रथकनिक्षाल क्रमकि जाउग याउम कु मुम्बाजकी अथा निमित्ति कत वर्वी एपये त्यायं कल अक धान स्मवेल स

नमनायाङ्ग केम् दुलं मध्यस्य चानाववाकः पिहां अया ४५ हिंयकजा ववायाग जिस्त वियाध्य गकार्य दत उत्त क्रुत्र मार्ड्य याना अधीना ७ भवे जर्म-क तम् वचन जिस्ना याना मङ्ग्र १ वि पासा पिंडपतापनसरंग यायंत कृतद्व मुचा कु इस तापील भवति मवा। व म्पाउप-राप सा नाड्य क राजू भीपति क्रुकक्क १५ कि कास-उपज या तिमिनिन कुं भारा नकल धक धाजा स्थाव अम् ववा क्रम्पत क्षाज्य-र पृता-क्तः स्यानि । त्रापि सानक्षित्र सुन्दि कंगू ह मरवूदना जिडि म्न-नम्नग-याना भरविस् याय आयथ्का काय धालमा किन किना मिककामाता ५५ अपल गना ५५ चें तकार <u> जयाभ्यःअस्त-॥</u>

[No. 22.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

NEWARI.

TRANSLITERATION AND TRANSLATION.

(NEPAL.)

Chha-mha manuksha-yā kāe ma-chā nī-mha da-sẽ cho-na. Chika-dhi-mha boy children being lived: Small A man-of tvoobi-yā-di-sã,' dha-ka kãě thao babā-vā-ke, ʻji-gu ansa-bhāga ii-ta share-portion mc-togive-please,' son-by own father-to, 'my bi-la. Kha-chhi-khā-chā babā-mhã ansa-bhāga Dhāe-tunữ dhā-la. father-by share-portion gave. Some-time said. Saying-soon-after ansa-bhāga paradesa o-não thao-gu dako jo-nāo da-sẽ-li allshare-portion takingother-country becoming-after ownthao-gu cho-nāo sampati dako phū-ta. Tho bela-sã allpleasure-with living own property squandered. This time-at that anikāla ju-yāo nae ma kha-não kasta desa-sa ghora ju-yāo country-in terrible famine arising to-eat not finding distressarising chha-mha desa-bāsi-ya thā-sa o-na. O-mha 0 desa-vā desa-bāsi-nã citizen-of place-in Thatthat country-of a went. citizen-by Phã phā jhae-ka-la chho-ta. nai-gu hima-nã thao-gu pwātha Swine-by eaten swine grazing-for sent.husks-with own belly thane ma da-vão cho-na. Atha-nã su-nā-nã chhũ o-vā-ta ma lived.Then-even him-to to-fill not getting anyone-by anything ju-se-li bi-vão thu-li chetaye iu-vāo mana-nã bha-la-pa-lã, 'ji this-much happening-on sensegiving coming mind-by 'my thought. thā-sa guli-ma-chhi seoka-pani-sena yeko na-yā-nã le-na du father-of place-at how-many servants-by mucheating-even left is, ji dhā-la-sā pityā-nāo siī-na. babā-yā Āo ji thā-sa o-não hungering die. I saying-in Now \boldsymbol{I} father-of place-to going " Iśora-o chhã-gu nheone ji-na pāpa yā-nāo, ão chha-na kāe dhāe-ke "God-and thee-of before me-by sinyour doing. now 80nto-say ju-la. ji ma Seoka chha-mha-the ji-ta mā-la." jogya vāe worthy I not became. Servant one-like to-make proper-became,' medhāe. dha-ka thao babā-yā thā-sa bela-sa babā-mha-sē tha o-na, saying own father-of place-to time-at went, father-by kāe oo-gu yāna-na-sẽ kha-nāo karunā chā-yāo bwā-ka o-nāo gala-pota-s coming far-from seeing pityfeeling running going neck-on

dhā-la, 'vo baba-ya-ta Tho bela-sa thao ghasa-pu-não chupā na-la. said. 0 This time-at father-to kiss ate. ownembracina ii-na pāpa vā-nāo. ão babā. Iśora-yā nheone chhana upara-sa 8i**n** doing. father, God-of before บ๐น uponme-by now Tho-te ju-la.' dha-ka dhā-la. chha-na-mha kāe dhāe-ke jogya ji ma Such I became. saying said. your sonto-say worthy notdhā-la. 'bhĩ-gu thao käe-yä ne-nāo babā-mha-sẽ thao seoka-panista khã servants-to said. ' good' son-of wordhearing father-by own own ha-yāo tho-yā-ta pũ-ki: tho-vā lāhā-ti-sa angū. tu-ti-sa lākã osata clothes bringing this-to put-on: this-of hand-on ring, feet-on shoes sayā bhoye-nyāe-kāo rasa-ranga yāe-nu. Chhāye dhā-la-sā. nhyā-ta-ki; jhi-ji merriment shall-do. Why said-on. allfeasting put; we mwā-nāo o-la: ta-não cho-na-mha, lu-yão sī-ka-mha. ii kāe the-being-one, found-again the-dead-one; reviving came: being-lost my 80n o-la, dha-ka dha-yāo bhoe-nyāe-kāo rasa-rangga yā-ta. feasting merriment made. came.' saying having-said

kāe thao-gu bū-sa cho-nā-cho-na-mha ta-dhi-ka-mha thao Tho bela-sa field-in This time-at the-elder own the-staying-one own son pvākhana-vā sala tā-vāo chha-mha hela-sa bājana chhe-sa 00 time-at music dancing-of sound hearing house-to going seoka-yā-ta sala-tāo, 'tha-na khe?' dha-ka ne-na. Seoka-nã dhā-la. chhu is?' saying asked. Servant-by said. 'here whatcalling, servant-to mu-mwā-la-kã o-yā nimirtina chhana kijā o-yāo chhũ 'chhana becauseanything not-happening coming brothercoming uour 'uour bela-sa bhoe-nyāe-ka-la,' dha-ka dhā-la. Tho tamchā-vão habã Thistime-at anger-feeling feasted, said. father-by saying \mathbf{chhe} -sa- $\mathbf{duh}\widetilde{\mathbf{a}}$ pihã Bahā-mha o-yāo hee-ka-la. ma 0-se cho-na. house-into notgoing remained. Father outsidecoming entreated. Babā-vāta chha-na-gu sewā lisala bi-yão, 'tā-kālã da-ta, ji-na service Father-to answer giving, 'long-time passed, me-by your langghanā yā-nā cho-nā: go-bela-sã chha-na-gu bachana ma vā-nāo done notremained: any-time wordtransgression your du. Athe-nã pāsā-pĩ-o vāe-ta chhana du-gu-chā nāpa rasa-rangga Still I withmerriment to-do you-by goat-young i8. companions cho-não chha-na-gu chha-mha nāpã go bela-sã $\mathbf{m}\mathbf{a}$ byū. Besvão năpa your Harlots with living oneeven any time-at gave. notchhã nimirtina bhoe sam pati phu-ku-mha tho chhã kāe o-la-yā you-by feast property wasterthis your coming-of on-account 80n dhā-la. na-ka-la.' dha-ka dhā-la. Tho bela-sa babā-mha-se-nã putā, 60 said. This father-by said. 80n. gave,' 8aying time-at

ji-ke du-gu phūkã nāpã cho-na-mha, jio **ch**ha sadā-nã being me-with allme-of withremaining, alway8 you yāe Jhi-ji-sena yā-nāo khusi khu-lā? chhã-gu-he ma rasa-rangga Us-bymerrimentmaking rejoicing to-make is ? yours notkijā sī-ka-mha, mwā-nāo Chhãe dhā-la-sā, chha-na thūkā. jogya the-dead-one, reviving Why saying-on, brotheryour consider. proper o-la. ta-não cho-na-mha, lu-yāo o-la; came.' enas-roho, recoveredlostcame;

PAHRT DIALECT.

Pahrī is spoken in the hills of Central Nepal. The name of the dialect literally means 'hill language.' It is sometimes also written Pahī or also Paḍhī.

No information is available about the number of speakers in Nepal. At the last Census of 1901, 245 speakers of Pahari and 23 speakers of Pahi were returned from Assam.

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A version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son and a list of Standard Words and Phrases have been received from the Nepal Darbar. They do not appear to be altogether trustworthy examples of the language, and the spelling is not sufficiently consistent or adequate for giving a precise idea of the phonetical system of the dialect. They are, however, the only foundation of the remarks on Pahri grammar which follow.

Pahrī is very closely related to Nēwārī, so closely that it can properly be described as a sub-dialect of that form of speech.

Pronunciation.—The spelling is inconsistent, and it is impossible to decide the various details regarding Pahrī pronunciation. O and wa are often interchanged; thus, o and wa, and. In mu- $n\bar{a}$ and $mw\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{a}$, having revived, u is interchanged with $w\bar{a}$. Similarly $y\bar{a}$ and e, i.e. probably \bar{e} , interchange in the suffix of the genitive.

Pahri possesses a k, a kh, a g, and a gh, and corresponding sets of palatals, dentals, and labials. Cerebral letters are sometimes written. It is not certain whether their pronunciation differs from the corresponding dentals. Note the interchange between g and gh in gh and gh in many suffixes, etc.

We have no information regarding tones and accents.

Article.—The numeral thi, one, is used as an indefinite article. Thus, $b\bar{a}$ thi- $s\bar{a}$, a father; kuju thi- $m\bar{a}$, a dog.

Nouns.—According to Hodgson there are two classes of nouns—namely, those that denote animate beings and those that denote inanimate objects, respectively. They are distinguished by adding the suffixes mha and gu, respectively, to qualifying adjectives, numerals, etc. The specimens do not quite bear out this statement, for the suffix gu is frequently used before all kinds of nouns; thus, chang-go manchhe, living man, a resident.

Gender.—The natural gender is distinguished by using different words or by adding affixes. Thus, mānchhe, man; māmā, woman: doh-sā, bull; mā-sā, cow: bābā-cha, boy; māmā-cha, girl: kuju, dog; mā-kuju, bitch: soro, horse; soro māgu, mare, and so on.

Number.—The usual plural suffixes are si, kāri, kārā, tõ, te. Thus, bā-si, fathers; māsā kāri, cows; tho pāsā-kārā-nuga, with my own friends; chalā-tõ, goats; besyā-te-naga, with harlots.

Case.—The subject of intransitive verbs and the object are not distinguished by adding any suffix. The subject of transitive verbs is put in the case of the agent, which is formed by adding one of the suffixes na and $h\bar{a}ye$. Thus, $b\bar{a}$ -na hio-ri, the-father-by said, the father said; pro- $h\bar{a}ye$ nhe- $n\bar{a}$, the son-by saying-from, when the son had said. The suffix na also denotes the instrument; thus, $p\bar{a}khi$ -na chi, ropes-with bind.

The suffix of the ablative is $n\bar{a}$; thus, u-th \bar{a} - $n\bar{a}$, this-place-from, from here. In $s\bar{a}$ -tha- $l\bar{a}$, from whom? $l\bar{a}$ is apparently used in the same way. Hodgson gives ang, from; compare moj-ang, luxuriously.

The suffix of the genitive is $y\bar{a}$, for which we sometimes find e, i.e. probably \bar{e} ; thus, $nu\ d\bar{a}$ - $y\bar{a}\ ki\bar{a}$ -pro- $y\bar{a}\ bih\bar{a}$, my uncle's son's marriage; $chh\tilde{i}\ b\bar{a}$ - $e\ chhe$, in thy father's house. The suffixes gu and mha can be added; thus, soro- $y\bar{a}$ -gu kathi, the horse's saddle. The suffix gu was probably originally only used before nouns denoting inanimate objects. Mha and gu can also be added to the base; thus, $b\bar{a}\ thi$ - $s\bar{a}$ -gu, of a father; chha-mha $n\bar{a}$, thy brother.

The dative is formed by adding the suffix $t\bar{a}$ to the base or to the genitive; thus, $b\bar{a}$ thi- $s\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{a}$, to a father; $b\bar{a}$ si- $y\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{a}$, to fathers.

The most usual suffix of the terminative and locative is ga or ka; thus, bu-ga, in the field, to the field; $b\bar{u}-tha-ka$, to his father. Instead of ga we also find go; thus, chhe-go, in the house; $l\bar{u}-go$, on his hand.

The Newari suffix sa occurs in forms such as laka-sa, near.

Other relations are indicated by adding postpositions such as kana, after; lumane, behind; naga, nakha, and napa, with; nhorkhe, nhiorkhe, before; purko, under; sika sike, before, and so forth.

Adjectives.—Adjectives are formed as in Newari. The suffixes mha and gu are according to Hodgson, used as in that form of speech. In the specimens gu is used before all classes of nouns; thus, bhingu manchhe, a good man.

The postposition sika is used as a particle of comparison; thus, $h\tilde{o}-y\bar{a}$ $manji-\bar{a}$ sik. $h\tilde{o}-y\bar{a}$ $bh\bar{a}ju$ $t\bar{a}j\bar{a}$, his sister before his brother tall, his brother is taller than his sister.

Numerals.—The first numerals are given in the list of words. Generic particle are added in order to indicate the nature of the qualified noun. $S\bar{a}$ seems to be use in a more general way; thus, nhi- $s\bar{a}$ pro, two sons; thi- $s\bar{a}$ bhoye, a feast. $S\bar{a}$ is some times replaced by si; thus, ni-si, two. Other generic particles are mha, also writte $m\bar{a}$, for animate beings, and gu or gi for things. Thus, thi-mha $chal\bar{a}$ -cha, a kid; thi-g one; ni-si-gi, two; khu-gu, six; che-gi, eight, and so on. Chhi in sa-chhi, hundred, another form of thi, one.

Pronouns.—The following are the personal pronouns:—

ji, I.
na, by me.
nung, nu, na, nu-yā, nu-gu,
my.
jā-ri, we.
jā-na, by us.
jā-gu, jā-ri-sa-lā, our.

chhi, chha, thou.
chha, chhao, by thee.
chha, chhao, by thee.
chha, chha, chhi, chha-mha,
chhangu, chhu-mha, thy.
chā-ri, chhi-ri, you.
chhā-na, by you.
chhā-gu, chhā-ri-sa-lā, your-

hố, chho, chha, he.
ho-na, chho-na, by him.
hwāngu, hố-yā, chhayā, his
hố-kari, hố-ri, they.
ho-kā-nā, by them.
ho-kā-ra-gu, their.

Note also tho and tha-gu, own.

The pronouns *chho*, *chha*, he, are also used as demonstrative pronouns. Other demonstratives are *tho*, this; *u*, this; *o* and *wo*, that.

Interrogative pronouns are se- $l\bar{a}$, who? $s\bar{a}$ - $l\bar{a}$, whose? $g\bar{u}$ -mha, gu-gu, which? cha- $l\bar{a}$, what? The final $l\bar{a}$ in most of these words is probably an interrogative particle.

Indefinite pronouns are formed by adding na to the interrogatives; thus, $su-n\bar{a}-n\tilde{a}$, by anyone; chhu-na, anything; gu-le-na, ever. Compare Newārī su, who? chhu, what?

Verbs.—The verb is of the same description as in Newari. It does not differ for person, and the subject of transitive verbs is put in the case of the agent.

Verb substantive.—The usual bases of the verb substantive are the same as in Newārī, viz., khi, da, and ju. The usual forms are, present khi-u, past du. The final u of such forms is probably related to Tibetan o. Other forms are khe-da, it is; ji khi mā, I be proper, I should be; asal ju-gu, good being.

Finite verbs.—The materials available are not sufficient for giving a full sketch of the conjugation of finite verbs, the more so because the difference between the various tenses is slight, and the same form can be used to denote present and past time.

Present time.—The base alone is used as a present; thus, ho-na $d\bar{a}$, he strikes. A suffix u has apparently been added in yu, he comes; compare ya, come.

A suffix e or i is often added, e.g., in nearly all the forms of the two first persons which occur in the texts. Compare na $d\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{a}$ chongi, I beating sit, I am beating; chha $d\bar{a}$ -e, thou strikest. Chongi, I sit, perhaps contains a suffix ngi. In mi thi-ni, I am not (worthy), we apparently have the same suffix in the form ni, while si-gu, I die, is a participle.

I do not understand the forms $j\bar{a}$ -ri leti \tilde{u} , we go; chhā-ri lā-sõ, you go; ho-ka-ri letā-ri, they go. They are all compound forms.

Past time.—The base alone is also used as a past tense; thus, la, he is found; $m\bar{a}$ $b\bar{i}$, he did not give. The suffix u or o can be added; thus, la-o, he was found; bi-u, he gave; $choy\bar{u}$, they remained.

The suffix na is used in forms such as o-na, he went; $m\bar{a}$ $b\bar{i}-n\bar{a}$, didst not give.

Instead of na we find ni in forms such as $d\bar{a}$ -ni, I have beaten; yo-ni, I have done, etc., and $ng\bar{a}$ in $dhung\bar{a}$, I finished.

A common suffix of the past is re or ri, ri; thus, na $d\bar{a}$ -ri, I struck; nhe-o-ri, he said; mu khā-re, he did not get. Nhe-o-ri, said, also contains the suffix o.

Forms such as lāi-gu, came; heo-gu, said, are apparently participles.

A compound past is na dā-e dhungā, me-by striking finished, I had struck.

Isolated forms are $j\bar{a}$ -ri $leti\tilde{u}$, we went; $chh\bar{a}$ -ri $l\bar{a}$ -s \tilde{o} , you went. Compare present.

Future.—The base alone is also used as a future; thus, $j\bar{a}$ -na da, we shall strike. A suffix tini or tingi, sometimes preceded by an e, can be added; thus, ji $d\bar{a}$ -ti-ni, me strike-will, I shall be struck; na $d\bar{a}$ -e-tingi, I shall strike; ji khi-tingi, I shall be. Ti-ni or ti-ngi probably contains an auxiliary ti and the suffix ni or ngi.

Imperative.—The base alone is used as an imperative; thus, $y\bar{a}$, come; ne, eat; chi, bind.

A suffix u is added in khi-u, be.

Another suffix e or i is much more frequently used. Compare biye, give; soye, look; $k\bar{a}$ -e, take.

The suffix $g\bar{a}$ in $t\bar{a}$ - $g\bar{a}$, put on; phi- $g\bar{a}$, put on; chai- $g\bar{a}$, let us remain; harkhi- $g\bar{a}$, let us make merry, is perhaps originally a future suffix.

Verbal nouns and participles.—The base alone, or with one of the suffixes e or $\bar{\imath}$ and o, is used as a verbal noun. Thus, $hi\bar{a}$ -ta, making-for, to make; $da\bar{\imath}$ mu $kh\bar{a}$ -re, to-fill not got, he was not allowed to fill; he-wo mu-khi, to-say not-is, it cannot be said.

The suffix gu can be added; thus, $ph\bar{a}$ -ye jha-ye-gu, to feed pigs; mhe-gu mi-thi-ni, to-say not is.

In kharcha-nhe-thū lumane, spent-making after, after he had spent, there is apparently a suffix $th\bar{u}$. Nhe-thū, making, can, however, also be a compound verb, making-finishing. Compare the base dhu used to form a past tense.

The final ri in khi-tā-ri, to be, is probably only an indefinite particle.

Relative participles are formed by adding genitive suffixes to the base; thus, $darm\bar{a}$ $b\bar{i}$ - $y\bar{a}$ $ch\bar{a}kara$, wages giving-of servant, a hired servant; asal ju-gu $k\bar{a}g\bar{u}$, good being clothes; yang- $g\bar{a}$ chang-go $m\bar{a}nchhe$, town-in living man, a man who lived in the town. It will be seen that the suffix gu, go, is also used when the qualified noun denotes an animate being.

The suffix gu is also employed to form verbal and conjunctive participles; thus, si-gu du, dead was, he had died; $maj\bar{a}$ $y\bar{a}$ -gu, merry making; khi-dhongu, to-be-finishing, having been. It has been added to the verbal noun ending in o in kha-o-gu, having seen; ke-o-gu, running.

The suffix tini is used to form a kind of adverbial participles. Thus, khi-tini, being; wo-tini, going; hioye-tini, doing.

The usual suffix of the conjunctive participle is $n\bar{a}$; compare Tibetan nas. Thus, $dai-n\bar{a}$, rising; $wai-n\bar{a}$, going. Ra has been added in $kh\bar{a}-n\bar{a}-ra$, having seen. $Nh\bar{a}$ has apparently been substituted for $n\bar{a}$ in $nh\bar{a}-ni-nh\bar{a}$, calling; $hi\bar{a}-ni-nh\bar{a}$, asking.

Another suffix of the conjunctive participle is e or $\bar{\imath}$; thus, $w\tilde{o}$ -e and $wa-\bar{\imath}$, going; $bu-l\bar{a}-\bar{\imath}$, bringing.

Passive voice.—There is no passive voice. Ji dā-ri, I am struck, literally means 'me struck.'

Negative particle.—The negative particle is a prefixed $m\bar{a}$, mu, or mi; thus, $m\bar{a}$ $b\bar{i}$, did not give; mu $l\bar{a}$, did not go; mhe-gu mi-thi-ni, to say is not. Note $ri\bar{a}$ mu-ra, did not transgress.

Order of words.—The usual order of words is subject, object, verb. Adjectives, numerals, and pronouns usually precede the word they qualify.

For further details the student is referred to the version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son which follows. I have corrected some obvious mistakes in the original. On the whole, however, I have been obliged to print the text as I have received it. Though it is far from being satisfactory, it is quite sufficient to show that Pahrī can safely be considered as a sub-dialect of Nēwārī.

[No. 23.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

NEWARI.

PAHRĪ DIALECT.

(NEPAL DARBAR.) kānchhā madhe Chha-gu du. nhi-sā pro mänchhe Thi-sā yo...ger Them-of among were. twosons man-of One bā-ta vāve nhe-nā bive, nun-dā ansa-bhāg 'nun-dā du-go pro-hāye, father-by saying give, share-portion me-to being · me-to son-by, pro-hāye chha kānchhā kana Bhachā dīna biu. ansa chhutiāyīna son-by thatyounger after days Few separating gave. share moj-ang wai-nā hutā par-des tāpā batu-le-nā dhana phuka feasting-with there going other-country far gathering wealth allude-heo-re. Sampati phuka sampati ansa-bhāga-yā-gu tha-gu chai-na squandered.. Property allshare-portion-of property own living pareju. dhāu ānekāl thavek lumane hang-gu nhe-thū kharcha happened. famine greatplace-at thatafter making expense mānchhe chang-go thi-sā deka-go Hang-gu pareju. dukha Chhāye-ta man residing place-of one That fell. distress Him-to chang-go-hāye chhāye-ta tha-gu Hang-gu yang-gā chana. wai-nā naga him-to own resident-by city-in That lived. going with bī. chhu-na $m\bar{a}$ Su-nā-nã jye-yo-rī. ihave-gu phāye bu-ga gave. notAnyone-by anything engaged. feeding swine field-in khā-re. Chete dai mu munā-na-kha parī ni-gu phā-na Chho-nā got. Mind to-fill nothusks-with belly eaten pigs-by Him-by ne-khā-tan mathi cha bā-yā 'nung ki, he-tā-re ju-kha-nã bread eating father-of much'my that, to-say-began getting Ji sĩ-gũ. pare-he-na ji du: chākara gwālāra ne-na-kā-dī-gā le-gā I die. hunger-from I servantsare: how-many feeding. *left* chha sike wa Iswara "ve bā, tha wai, bā-yā dai-nā andon God you father. "D going, father-of place rising Chhã darmā hewo mu-khī. pro chhã Ji-ma yo-ni. na pāpa Your wages saying not-is. 80N your committed.Now me-bu કાંજ Chhaü o-na. hā-tha-ka pro he-nā-nāī.", Dai-nā chākara-the bī-yā That father-near went. make-me." 80n Arising servant-lift giving-of lie-nā ke-o-gu kha-o-gu davā_ bā-na o-chha-yā bhagio, chaha tāpā pity doing running seeing father-by his being, much far

dhusiu heo-ri chupā ne-ri. Pro-na bā-vā-ta grāpu-ka nhec-ri embracedidkissate. Son-by neck-at father-to said.nhiorkhe pāpa chhã vo-ni. 've hā. Iswara Ji chha-gu pro wa God· 0 you-of before sindid.1 father. andyour 80N mi-thi-ni.' Tara bā-nā tha-gu chākara-yā-ta mhe-gu (sic) hio-ri. 'asal But father-by not-am.' ownservant-to said.'good' saying ju-gu bu-lăĭ o-yā-ta liga-na phigā. Lā-go aguchā, li-go Hand-on . ring, bringing him-to puttingclothes put.being feet-on tai-nā Kā ne-nā chai-gā. liguna phigā. moja-na Cha-lā merriment-in let-us-remain. eating drinking shoes put.Let-us Why pro si-gu du, hanaka mu-nā: ta-na-gu, hanaka ho-nā. u-gu \mathbf{n} a son dead was, thismyagain revived; lost-was-who. saying, again he-nā chha-kā-na ānanda ju-yā choyū. was-found, saying they happy being remained.

Chha-yā jeṭhā-gu pro bu-ga du. Lāī-nā che-yā-gu lakasa son field-in Hiselder was. Coming house-of neararriving pekha-yā so tā-nā thi-sā chākara-yā-ta nhā-ni-nhā. 0 heard-having dancing-of sound one servant-to calling, nhā-he-nā hiā-ni-nhā, 'chha-mha 'chalo?' $\mathbf{n}\mathbf{ ilde{a}}$ lāyo kuśala ju-yā 'your younger-brother coming safe 'what?' saying asking, lāī-gu khā-nā-ra chhã bā-na thi-sā bhoye yo-ri,' chākara-na chha-yā-ta your father-by feast made, servant-by seeing one him-to he-nā chha ta-chā-nā dohā mu lā. Chha-yā bā piāhā angry-becoming inside saying he not came. $oldsymbol{His}$ father outside wo-nā chha-yā-ta bolabintī hio. Chha-yā bā-ta jabāb biu, 'sove. going him-to entreaty made.Hisfather-to answer gave, bīkhā nīsiāng chhã tahal hioye-ti-ni bajā chha kha gu-le-na-ni years sinceyour service doingyour wordever-even riā-mu-ra. Herak chha-o gu-le-na tho pāsā-kā-rā-nu-gu maiā transgressed-not. Stillyou-by ever owncompanions-with merry thi-mha chalā-chā mā bī-nā. Besiä-te-na-gä chai-nā chha-gu gavest. making-for one goat-young notHarlots-with living your ne-biu-gu sampati chha0 pro lāyo suka bhoja heo-ri.' property to-eat-giving thatyour 80N coming on feastmadest. Ānā-tu bā-na hio-gu, 'he pro, chha du. Nohiā ma-da-sa-kho ii-thā 'O Then father-by said, 80n. you me-with are.Mine being phuka chha-gu khe-da. Jā-na majā-yā-gu harkhi-ga munāsiba du: is. Us-byshall-be-happy proper allyours merry-making is ; chhu-mha chās-kī wo \mathbf{na} sigu-du, hanaka mwā-na; ta-gu-du, brother dead-was, because that 4047 again revived: lost-was. la. hanaka again was-found,

LEPCHA OR RONG.

The Lepchas are considered as the oldest inhabitants of Sikkim. They are also found in Western Bhutan, Eastern Nepal, and in Darjeeling. They call themselves Rong and are known to the Tibetans as Rong-pa or Mûn-pa. Lepcha is a nickname given to them by the Nepalese. According to the Sikkim Gazetteer the local pronunciation of the word is Lapcha or Lapche. Dr. Waddell thinks that it is composed of lap, speech, and cha, vile, and that it consequently means 'vile speakers.'

Róng has an indigenous literature, and the Sikkim Rājā Chakdor Namgye (born 1686) designed an alphabet for the use of his subjects. Róng literature comprises Buddhistic and other religious books, law books, etc. Very little has as yet been made known about it. Parts of the Scriptures have also been translated into the language.

According to information collected during the preparatory operations of this Survey the numbers of speakers of Rong in Sikkim and Darjeeling were, roughly estimated, as follows:—

At the last Census of 1901, the language entries under the head of Rong were as follows:—

Bengal P	RESIDE	NOY-	•						•				
Sikki	m.	•	•				•	•			•	7,94	5
Darje	eling	•	•		•			•			•	11,259	2
Jalpai			•	•	•		•	•	•	•	•	74	Ĺ
Mong	hyr		•		•		•	•		•	•	1	
Bhag			•		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	1	Į.
Sonta	l Parg	anas			•	•	•		•	•	•	1	
	-												•
									Tota	l Beng	gal Pr	esidenc	y 19,274
Assam	•	•		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	. 17
									,	Grani	Тот	u.	19,291

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Written character.—It has already been remarked that a Lepcha alphabet was introduced by King Chakdor. Compare the remarks by Srī Kali Kumār Dās in the Journal of the Buddhist Text Society, iv, i, 1898, Appendix ii, p. 1. It is based on a certain form of the Tibetan U-met character, and consists of the following signs:—

£	U		W	7
ka	kha		ga	nga
- ◊	×	•	æ	*
cha	chha		ja	nya
\$	ط		*	a
ta	tha		da	na
ス	Ø	5	0	る
pa	pha	fa	ba	ma
U	Ge		#	٤
<u>ts</u> a	<u>ts</u> ha		za	ya
7	W		₩	Ð
ra	la.		ha	٧a
Cw	E		60.	
88.	sha		wa.	
5	₩		=	(19
kla	gla		pla	fla
(Y)	F		X	
bla	mla		lha	
&	&(æ	Jæ	Sã
A	a	á	i	í
Z)	Z	Ŗ	(Z	(2
u	ů	e	o	6
			**	-

The signs of the vowels given in the table are only used in the beginning of words and syllables. When preceded by a consonant the vowels are expressed as follows:—

The short a is inherent in all consonants and is not separately marked. The full signs of the other vowels contain the sign of the short a. This sign is dropped when they are preceded by a consonant. Thus:—

The consonants k, m, l, n, p, r, t, and ng are also used as finals without being followed by a vowel. They then assume a different shape. Compare the table which follows:—

These finals can, of course, be combined with all other vowels. Thus (kor; (kor; extends on words)

The semi-consonants y and r are often added to other consonants without any vowel intervening. In that case the signs y and y respectively are added to the preceding consonant. Thus:—

Ev	(%	Wya	万レ	X V
kya	khya	mya	klya	lhya
E)	نم	习	T)	b
kra	gra	pra	mra	hra
E p krya	(in) grya		ngrya	N prya, etc.

The sign γ is also added to \mathcal{Z} a, which is then transliterated 'a; thus, \mathcal{Z} 'aya.

Pronunciation.—The short a has the sound of u in 'rut.' In some words it has the sound of e in 'hen' and it is then often written e; thus, jan and jen, to be bad; fyan and fyen, a forman. Ya is commonly interchangeable with e, and the pronunciation of a as e apparently only occurs after palatals and y.

Before the final k and ng the short a acquires the sound of o in 'mock' and it is then often also written δ ; thus, ta-bak and ta-bók, belly; lang and lóng, stone.

A is said to have a prolonged and guttural sound. It is often interchangeable with δ and u; thus, $ty \delta t$ and $ty \delta t$, to hack. Similarly u also interchanges with a in writing; thus, sun-mut, wind; mat, to blow.

A has the sound of a in 'far.' Sometimes, and apparently when followed by k or ng, it is pronounced like the o in 'mock.'

I has the sound of i in 'pin' and ℓ is the corresponding long, or rather prolonged, sound. I have written ℓ and not \bar{i} in deference to Professor Grünwedel's spelling, and because ℓ is distinguished from i by means of the same sign as α from δ .

U is said to be pronounced somewhat like the French eu in 'jeu.' vol. III, part L

 \bar{U} is the long \bar{u} in 'rule.'

E has the sound of ay in 'day,' and also that of e in 'ten.'

O is pronounced as o in 'no.' It is very often replaced by \bar{u} ; thus, on and $\bar{u}n$, horse.

O is the broad o in 'nor,' 'for.'

O and δ are sometimes interchangeable with e; thus, $gly\delta t$, to let down; glyet, to let fall; hok and hyek, to husk.

The ' α which is written before y is apparently silent.

The usual pronunciation of the consonants does not call for any remark. In Tibetan words some of them occasionally assume another pronunciation.

Kr is sometimes pronounced as t and gr as d; thus, $kr\bar{u}$, pronounced $t\bar{u}$, a ship; grun, pronounced dun, a feast. R has sometimes a similar pronunciation; thus, $r\bar{a}n-r\delta$, pronounced $dr\bar{a}n-dr\delta$, or rather $d\bar{a}n-d\delta$, equal, like.

Z has the sound of dz in words such as $dz\bar{a}m$ - $b\bar{u}$ -ling, Jambudvīpa.

Prefixes.—A very common prefix is \bar{a} ; thus, \bar{a} -bo, father; \bar{a} -ry $\bar{u}m$, good. It is commonly prefixed to verbal roots in order to form nouns and adjectives; thus, chor, to be sour; \bar{a} -chor, sour; ti, to be great; \bar{a} -tim, large; thi, to arrive; \bar{a} -thit, arrival. It is also added to nouns in order to specify the meaning or to form diminutives; thus, $\bar{u}ng$, water; \bar{a} - $\bar{u}ng$, water in which meat has been boiled: $k\bar{u}ng$, a tree; \bar{a} - $k\bar{u}ng$, a bush.

The prefix \bar{a} is not a necessary part of the word, and it is often dropped; thus, \bar{a} -hám, pure; jer hám, pure gold: \bar{a} -tí, an egg; fo tí, a bird's egg. We are not as yet able to ascertain the rules regulating the retention or dropping of this \bar{a} . It seems as if it is commonly dropped when two words are put together as a compound.

There are several other prefixes in use. Some of them have still a definite meaning of their own. Others are apparently used as mere formatives. Such are ka, ta, pa, and sa in words such as ka- $l\bar{u}t$, bare, from $l\bar{u}t$, to uncover; ta- $kry\acute{o}ng$, praise, from $kry\acute{o}ng$, to praise; pa- $thy\bar{a}m$, arrangement, from $thy\bar{a}m$, to arrange; sa-tsuk and tsuk, sun; sa-ar, goat, etc. Compare the prefixed consonants of classical Tibetan.

Articles.—The numeral $k\bar{a}t$, one, is used as an indefinite article, and the suffix re has the meaning of a definite article. Thus, $mar\acute{o}$ $k\bar{a}t$, a man; pa-no-re, the king. In connexion with numerals the suffix re is often replaced by mu; thus, $k\bar{a}t-mu$ $k\bar{a}t-k\bar{a}$ \mathcal{U} , the one said to the other.

Re and mu have another form, rem, and mum, respectively, in the accusative. Thus, hu pa-no-rem shū, he petitioned the king; $k\bar{a}t$ -mu $k\bar{a}t$ -mum $l\ell$, the one said to the other. In this form, mu can be used after all sorts of nouns, definitely as well as indefinitely.

Nouns.—Gender.—The natural gender is expressed by using different words or by means of qualifying additions meaning 'male,' 'female,' respectively. The usual male affixes are ta-gri, for human beings; \bar{a} -bu, for animals; \bar{a} -tsu, for goats, pigs, etc.; lóng, for some large animals; and the most common female ones are ta-ayu, human beings; \bar{a} -mót, animals; \bar{a} -lyeng, young females rising to maturity; \bar{a} -mi, a young pig; \bar{a} - $g\bar{u}$, a beast having borne young. The initial \bar{a} of such words is usually dropped. Thus, \bar{a} -bo, father; \bar{a} -mo, mother: pa-no, king; pun-di, queen: \bar{a} -num, elder brother;

ā-nóm, elder sister: 'ayeng ta-grí, younger brother; 'ayeng ta-'ayu, younger sister: hik bu, cock; hik mót, hen: món tsu, a boar; món mót, a sow: tyāng-mo lóng, a male elephant; tyáng-mo mót, a female elephant: rum-mít, a goddess: bik lyeng, a young matured cow that has not borne young: bik gū, a matured cow: món mí, a sow that has not had young.

Number.—There are three numbers, the singular, the dual, and the plural. The suffix of the dual is nyum, and the plural is expressed by adding sang in the case of animate beings and pang in the case of inanimate objects. Nyum means 'the two,' both,' and it is often replaced by the usual numeral nyet, two. It is, therefore, perhaps more correct to say that there are only two numbers, the singular and the plural. The plural suffixes sang and pang are pronounced sóng, póng, respectively. Examples of their use are ma-ró sang, men; li-pang, houses. Pang can also be added in the case of animate beings; thus, ma-ró pang, men.

Case.—The base alone, without any suffix, is used as the subject of intransitive verbs, and as the object. The object can, however, be distinguished by adding rem or mum; compare the remarks under the head of the article. Thus, ā-bo-sa ā-mū-re māk-nón-ne, father-and mother-the died, the father and mother died; go hu-do kup lyūp, I his son beat, I have beaten his son; chāp-chhu sang-rem lí, servants-to said, he said to the servants.

The subject of transitive verbs is put in the case of the agent, which is formed by adding nun; thus, \bar{a} -kup tek-nun \bar{a} -bo-rem shu, son small-by father-to said, the younger said to his father.

The suffix nun also forms an ablative; thus, \bar{a} - $b\bar{a}$ -nun, here-from, from here.

The genitive can be expressed by putting the governed before the governing word; thus, \bar{a} -do-sa \bar{a} -bo ll- $k\bar{a}$, you-of father house-in, in your father's house. A-do-sa, your, contains the suffix sa, which is commonly used in the genitive; thus, ka-su \bar{a} -bo-sa $ch\bar{a}p$ -chhu-sang, my father's servants.

The vocative is expressed by prefixing e and suffixing $w\bar{a}$ or \bar{a} , before which a final consonant is doubled; thus, e \bar{a} -bo- $w\bar{a}$, O father; e \bar{a} -kup- $p\bar{a}$, O child.

Other relations are indicated by means of postpositions. Such are \bar{a} -lon, behind; \bar{a} -min, under; \bar{a} -plang, upon; dun- $k\bar{a}$, in the presence of; nahān, before; $k\bar{a}$, to, in, at, for, on, upon, and so forth.

Adjectives.—Adjectives are commonly formed from verbal bases by prefixing \tilde{a} , and, if the verb ends in a vowel, by suffixing m; thus, $d\tilde{u}$, to be white; \tilde{a} - $d\tilde{u}m$, white. Other adjectives are formed by adding the suffix bo; thus, $ry\tilde{a}m$ -bo, beautiful.

Adjectives usually follow the noun they qualify; thus, on \bar{a} - $d\bar{u}m$, the white horse.

The particle of comparison is len; thus, hado yeng hado nóm len rhen, his brother his sister than tall, his brother is taller than his sister.

Numerals.—The first numerals are given in the list of words. They follow the noun they qualify. Higher numbers are counted in twenties; thus, khā nyet, forty; khā fa-ngū, twenties five, hundred.

Pronouns.—The following are the personal pronouns:—

00. I. hó. thou. hu, he, she, it. ka-sum, me. hó-mum, thee. hum, him, her, it. go-num, by me. hó-nun, by thee. hu-nun, by him, her, it. ka-su, mv. hó-sa, thy. hu-sa, his, her, its. hu-nun, from him, her, it. ka-su-nun, from me. hó-nun, from thee. ka-nyí, we two. hu-nyí, ha-nyí, they two. ā-nyí, you two. ka-yū, kā, we. hu-yū, ha-yū, they. ā-yū, you. ka-yūm, us. hu-yūm, ha-yūm, them. ā-yūm, you. \bar{a} -yū-nun, by you. ka-yū-nun, hu-yū-nun, ha-yū-nun, kā-nun. by us. by them. ka-yū-sa, kā-sa, our. \bar{a} -y \bar{u} -sa, your. hu-yū-sa, ha-vü-sa. their.

These pronouns can be emphasized by adding the particle do; thus, ka-do, I myself; ka- $y\bar{u}$ -do, we ourselves; \bar{a} -do, ho-do, thou thyself; \bar{a} -nyi-do, you two yourselves; hu-do, ha-do, he himself, and so on.

Demonstrative pronouns are \bar{a} -re, this; o-re, that. The particle do can be added; thus, o-re-do-pang, those very things. The simple bases \bar{a} and o are used as demonstrative adjectives; thus, \bar{a} $n\bar{a}m$ kup, this year only; o nyi-lung, under those circumstances.

Interrogative pronouns are to, who? sa-re, which? shū, what? The interrogative pronouns are also used as relatives; thus, ma-ró to-num zūk-re, the man who did it. The most common way of expressing relativity is, however, by means of participles; thus, ta-lyāng-kā jū-bā rum, heaven-in living God, the God who is in heaven; ka-su kupā-re māknón-bū-re, my son this dead-gone-the, this my son who had died. Participles can also be used in connexion with interrogative pronouns; thus, sa-tet ka-su ka-kā thūp-shyet nyi-wung-re ka-sum nóng-wa, how-much my share getting-for being-the me-to give; give me the share which falleth to me. It will be seen that the article re is, in such cases, added to the usual verbal participles.

Indefinite pronouns are formed by adding la to the interrogatives; thus, to-na-la, anything.

Verbs.—Verbs do not change for person and number. Some forms show a preference for certain persons, but this tendency has not been developed. In the case of the verb bo, to give, there are two different forms, viz., bo, when the object is of the first or second person, and $by\ell$, when the object is of the third person.

Verb substantive.—Several bases are used with the meaning of a verb substantive. The most usual ones are gum, go, go, go, go, ka, and nyi. Gum is used in all persons and numbers; go is usually, but not always, employed in the second person, and especially interrogatively; go is common in negative clauses and without regard to person; $g\bar{a}$ is almost wholly confined to the negative; ka is almost invariably combined with a particle, and generally refers relatively to a neuter subject; and nyi is used in all persons and numbers.

Finite verb.—Some verbal bases ending in a vowel undergo certain changes before auxiliary verbs, such as khu, to be able; lel, to be finished; $g\bar{a}t$, to desire; $m\bar{a}t$,

to do, and also before several other suffixes. In such cases m, n, or t is added to the base. Thus, li, to speak; lin-khu, to be able to speak; shi, to see; shim-khu, to be able to see; di, to come; dit-det, about to come, and so forth.

Some verbal suffixes are used with an indefinite meaning, without reference to time. Such are ma, ma-o, yam-o, and sa-o. The first three are used with the meaning of a present or past; thus, go pi-ma, I am writing, or, have written; lot- $th\bar{u}b$ -ma, he has been found again; hu thi-ma-o, he has arrived; hu $m\bar{a}k$ -yam-o, he is dead. The final o of such forms should be compared with the assertive o of Tibetan.

Sa-o applies more to the present or future; thus, go nóng-sa-o, I shall go.

Present time.—The base alone is sometimes used as a present; thus, go $ly\bar{u}p$, I beat. The base $b\bar{u}m$, to remain, to be, is commonly added; thus, go lik- $b\bar{u}m$, I call.

Participles ending in det and ung are commonly also used with the meaning of a present; thus, hu $m\bar{a}k$ -det, he is dying; $h\delta$ $ly\bar{u}p$ -pung, thou strikest.

The same is the case with the forms ending in $p\bar{a}$, such as nyi- $p\bar{a}$, it is; $ry\bar{u}$ - $p\bar{a}$, it is good. Compare the Tibetan article pa.

Past time.—The base alone is commonly used as a past tense; thus, go 14, I said; bām, he lived.

Participles ending in ung, $p\bar{a}$, and bo are often used in the same way; thus, $h\delta$ buk-kung, thou struckest; $l\delta t$ -di- $p\bar{a}$, he returned; nyim- $b\bar{u}$, he was.

A past tense is also formed by adding $b\bar{a}$; thus, $go\text{-}nun\ lik-b\bar{a}$, I called; $go\ buk-b\bar{a}m-b\bar{a}$, I strike-remained, I was striking.

A periphrastic past is formed by adding $f\bar{a}t$, to finish, to complete; thus, lik- $f\bar{a}t$ or lik- $f\bar{a}t$ - $b\bar{a}$, called, or, had called. Te is sometimes added; thus, shong- $f\bar{a}t$ -te, he wasted.

Te is perhaps a suffix e with reduplication of the preceding t. If so, it is connected with the suffix ne in non-ne, went.

Future.—The usual future is formed by adding sho; thus, shu-sho, I shall say. Sho is connected with the suffix shang, or shong in go buk-shong, I shall strike. According to the list of words such forms are only used in the first person. The suffix shang is, however, commonly used to form an indefinite future participle.

The list of words gives forms such as buk-shet, thou wilt strike, he will strike, in the second and third persons. The suffix shet is used to form verbal nouns and infinitives of purpose; thus, \underline{tsam} , to hold; \underline{tsam} -shet, handle; thap-shyet nyi-wang-re, getting-for being-the, that which should be got.

Note also the suffixes $pa-r\delta$, which implies a doubt, and $t\bar{u}ng$, which is used to form a kind of subjunctive; thus, $go shi-pa-r\delta$, I may perhaps see him; $go-nun \bar{a}-y\bar{u}m h-t\bar{u}ng$, I would have told you.

What may possibly take place is denoted by adding the suffix $p\bar{u}$; thus, go lik- $p\bar{u}$, I may perhaps call; go lik-shang- $p\bar{u}$, I shall perhaps call.

Imperative.—The imperative is formed by adding o; thus, $d\ell$ -o, come. In verbs ending in a consonant, a is added and the preceding consonant is doubled; thus, $m\bar{a}t$ -ta-o or $m\bar{a}t$ -ta-o, do. Sometimes we also find forms such as $l\ell$ -a or $l\ell$ -a-o, speak.

The suffix wa in nong-wa, give, is only another way of writing o.

A periphrastic imperative is formed by adding kón, to permit, to the base; thus, ka-sum lik-kón, or lik-kòn-na-o, let me call.

Verbs ending in a vowel assume the full form mentioned above before this kón; thus, shí, to see; shím-kón, let him, etc., see: byí, give; byin-kón, let him, etc., give: dí, come; dít-kón, let him, etc., come.

An imperative of the third person is also formed by prefixing ta and suffixing sa; thus, $hum\ ta-mat-sa$, let him do it.

The suffix $k\bar{a}$ is used in the first person; thus, \bar{a} - $g\delta$ - \bar{a} -nyi $m\bar{a}t$ - $k\bar{a}$, let us make merry.

The negative imperative is formed by prefixing ma and suffixing nun; thus, ma-li-nun, don't speak.

Verbal nouns and participles.—All the forms mentioned under the head of the various tenses are properly verbal nouns or participles.

The base alone is used as a verbal noun; thus, $th\ell$, to arrive; $th\ell$ -re, the arrival, etc. By adding various postpositions adverbial clauses can be formed. Such postpositions are gang, if; go-rung, though; shen, when, etc. Thus, go $l\ell$ -gang, if I speak; ka-sum $s\ell$ -go-rung, though you kill me; khya-shen, when he came.

The verbal nouns formed by adding shet have already been mentioned.

The same is the case with the present participle ending in det; thus, lik-det, calling, about to call.

The most usual participle is formed by adding wung, or ung, before which a final consonant is doubled; thus, li-wung, saying; māt-tung, doing. This participle is also used as a noun in connexion with the postposition sa; thus, shang-lel-lung-sa, to-waste-finishing-on, after he had wasted; lik-kung-sa la, calling-on even, immediately on calling.

The suffix shang has been mentioned under the head of future. It forms an indefinite future participle, and also an infinitive of purpose; thus, lik-shang, calling, about calling; bro-shang, in order to tend.

Conjunctive participles are formed by adding $b\bar{a}n$, i.e., probably $b\bar{a}$ and the conjunction un, and, and lung; thus, $zo-b\bar{a}n$, having eaten; lik-lung, having called.

The relative participle is commonly formed by adding the suffix bo or $b\bar{u}$; thus, ta- $ly\bar{a}ng$ - $k\bar{a}$ $j\bar{u}$ - $b\bar{u}$ rum, heaven-in living God, the God who lives in heaven.

The participle ending in ung or wung is also commonly used as a relative participle. The article re is commonly added. Thus, lók-kung-re, expending the, that which has been expended. It will be seen that the whole relative clause has here been compounded into one single noun.

The suffix m which forms adjectives of verbal bases can also be considered as the suffix of a relative participle. Compare Khambu m, me, etc.

Passive voice.—There is no proper passive voice. Instead of 'I am struck' the Lepchas say 'somebody struck me.' The bases thom, to place, and nong, to go, are sometimes added in order to form a kind of passive; thus, pi-thom-bo, written; moknon, expended.

Causals.—Causal verbs are formed by inserting a y after the initial consonant. Thus, thór, to escape; thyór, to cause to escape: thóp, to knock down; thyóp, to cause to knock down. A final ng is then changed to n; thus, dáng, to run; dyán, to fling away: nóng, to go; nyón, to cause to go.

Other causals are formed by adding kón, to permit; māt, to do. Thus, buk-kón, to cause to beat; go-la māt, merrily make, to gladden.

Verbs such as nyón, cause to go; hryón, ráise; byí, give, etc., are often affixed to other verbs, giving an emphatic transitive sense; thus, óp-nyón, to fire off; dun-byí, to tell to, to relate; lí-bi, he said, etc.

Other auxiliaries used in the formation of compound verbs are khu, to be able; gāt, to desire, to be wanted; te, which implies a doubt, and so forth. Thus, zūk-khu, to be able to do; go nóng-gāt, I want to go; sum-gó-gāt-pā, to-be-glad-is-wanted, we should make merry; shū zūk-ka-te, what can be done? Te can also be used after the suffix fāt in the past tense. See above. Compare also bām-nyi-de, livest.

Irregular verbs.—The verbs nóng, to go; hróng, to arise; fróng, to point out, are irregular, their past base being formed by changing the final ng to n; thus, go nón, I went.

Negative particle.—The negative verb is formed by prefixing ma and suffixing ne; thus, ma nóng-ne, you did not give; ma nyin-ne; it is not. The latter example shows that verbs ending in a vowel often double the n of the suffixed ne.

Interrogative particle.—In such queries as do not contain an interrogative pronoun, the interrogative particle a is added; thus, hó ā-lom li-a, did you say so? A is sometimes also used in connexion with other interrogatives; thus, hó sa-thā khya-shang-a, you when arrive-will?

Order of words.—The usual order of words is subject, object, verb.

For further details the student is referred to the works mentioned above under the head of authorities and to the specimens which follow. They have both been kindly prepared by Mr. David MacDonald. A list of Standard Words and Phrases, which has been forwarded from Darjeeling, will be found on pp. 255 and ff.

[No. 24.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

LEPCHA OR RONG.

SPECIMEN I.

(Mr. David MacDonald, 1899.)

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[No. 24.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

LEPCHA OR RONG.

SPECIMEN I.

TRANSLITERATION AND TRANSLATION.

(Mr. David MacDonald, 1899.)

Ma-ró kāt-sa ā-kup nyet nyi. Ha-nyí nóng-kā ā-kup tek-nun Man one-of 80n8 two Both were. among 80n small-by i-bo-rem shu. ·e ā-bo-wa. gyū-gi-cho-nun sa-tet ka-su ka-kā father-to said. 60 father, substance-wealth-from how-much share my thun-shvet nyi-wung-re ka-sum nong-wa.' O-thā hu-nun ha-vum ha-do-sa give.' getting-for being-that me-to Then him-by them-to hia gyū-gi-cho rit-bi-fāt-te. Sa-'ayāk ā-gyāp ma-bām ā-kup tek-nun divide-give-finished. property Days many not-going 80n small-by gyū-gi-cho tyáng gyom-bu-bān lyang ā-rum kāt-kā nong-lung gathered-carried-having property all country far one-to going o-bā ā-jen-sa 'ayūk-kā ha-do-sa gyū-gi-cho-pang shang-fat-te. Hu-nun evil-of there work-in his-own goods to-scatter-finished. Him-by tyáng shang-lel-lung-sa ā-iun o-thā lyāng o-re-kā krit-nām to-scatter-completing-finishing-of after then all country that-in famine ngūn-nón-ne. Πn hu zóm-shet ma-nvin ngun-nón. $\mathbf{U}\mathbf{n}$ hn to-kappen-went. And he food without became. And he nong-lung lyang 0-10-82 ma-ró kāt-sa chhó-lung bām. hu-nun Un going country that-of man one-of joining lived. And him-by ha-dām ha-do-sa nyót-kā món bro-shang klóng. Un hu món ZO Line his-own field-in swine feeding-for sent. And he swine food la. zo-bān ha-do ta-bók blen-shang ak-ching. IIn to-na-la CUCH eaten-having 0108 bellu filling-for intended. And anyone ha-dūm shū-la ma bin-ne. O-tha ha-do tem-bo lat-lung hu-nun him-to anything not gave. Then own consciousness coming him-by Ħ. 'ka-su ā-bo-sa chāp-chhu-sang-sa sóm-shet nyi-wung-kā thóm-shet-la seid. father-of servants-of eating-for being-in spare-to-even Shon-la go-na krit-dók-lung mak-det-pa. Go lūk-lung ka-an $B_{\mathbf{z}\mathbf{z}}$ $I \sim$ hungering die. I arising my a-bo lying Búng-ban shu-sho. "e ā-bo-wa, go-nun ta-lyāng-kā jū-bū gone-having say-will, "O father, me-by heaven-in living .

ā-do-88. dun-kā lā-yo zük-fät-te. Go ā-do-sa ā-kup TUM-66 nn. God-of and you-of presence-in sin to-make-finished. I your 80% ngun-shang la Ka-sum ā-do-sa chāp-chhu-sang nóng-kā kāt ma-wa-ne. not-worthy. Me your servants even among OME sang ngun-kon-na."' O-tha hu luk-lung ha-do ā-bo lyāng lót-di-pa. be-let." Then he arising like own father near back-came. ha-dūm ā-rum-do-kā Shen-la ha-do bo-nun shi-bān kyón-dyít But his father-by him distance-at seen-having compassion dáng-nón-bān ha-do pa-top-kā ká-bān chūk-māt. māt-lung kiss-made. hi 8 neck-on embraced-having run-gone-having Ā-kup-re-nun shu, 'e ā-bo-wa. go-nun ta-lyāng-kā jū-bū rum-sa me-by Heaven-in living God-of and Son-the-by said. ' O father, zūk-fāt-te. A-lang-nun-pel ā-do-sa ā-kup dun-kā lāyo ā-do-sa you-of presence-in to-do-finished. Henceforth your 80% sin. Shen-la ā-bo-re-nun chāp-chhu-sang-rem lí. ngun-shang la ma-wa-ne.' servants-to said. be-to even not-worthy.' But father-the-by ⁴tyang lyen ryūm-bū dum ā-ká-kā dūt-bān ha-dūm dem-bi. TIn And hand-on then goodcloth brought-having himput-on. 'all ka-kyup, ā-thūng-kā lhóm ä-gó-ä-nyí chók-bi-wa. Un ka-yū zo-bān eating And merriment feet-on shoes to-put-give. we Shū-go-yo-gang, ka-su kup ā-re māk-nón-bū-re, lót-zū-bām-pā; māt-kā. this dead-gone-the, again-living-is; make-let. What-is-so-if. my 80N fāt-nón-bū-re, lót-thūb-ma.' O-thā ha-yū ā-gó-ā-nyí māt-ma-o. lost-gone-the, again-found-is.' Then they merriment made.

bām-nyi. num-fren-re nyót-kä Un hu ha-do-sa ā-kup O-thā elder-the field-in And he Then his 80% Was. ā-zut-kā khyá-shen pa-lit tung-dyŭ-sa lók-tsűt lót-di-lung li-sa harp-of back-coming house-of nearness-in arriving flute dance bām-mung-sa ā-sūt thyo-lung chāp-chhu kāt-rem lik-bān 'ā-re vet. going-one-of sound hearing servant one called-having asked, 'this shū ngūn-bām-mung go?' Hu-nun ha-dum lí-bi, 'a-do-sa aying 'your younger-brother. is ? " Him-by him-to said. what going-on kāt klóng-ma. dun Shu-go-yo-gang, ā-do bo-nun lót-thi-ma. un your father-by feast one bestowed. Because, back-arrived. and ha-dum a-ryum-a-ryum-sa tsum-thup-pa.' Shen-la hu sāk-lyāk-lung met-got-is.' him-to safe-and-sound But he angry-being house-of lyāng-kā plá-lung Ā-sa tun-dók-kā ā-bo-re góng-kā ma nóng-ne. This-of account-on father-the out**si**de consing went. inside not Hu-nun ā-bo-rem shu, 'ge-nun ā-tet nām ā-do-sa ha-dūm yak-ma. Him-by father-to said, 'me-by so-many years him entreated.

kó ā-do-sa hyók-ne. sa-thā-la ma chāp-chhu shu-pā, un your word broke. not service do, and ever-even tyól-sang-sa sa-thā-la ka-su dep-ka O-lo-go-rung ho-nun ka-sum Thus-was-though thee-by me-to ever my friends-of company-in kāt la ā-gó-ā-nyí mät-shang-sa tun-dók-ka sa-ār-kup ma nóng-ne. merriment one even not making-of account-on goat-young gavest. Shen-la ā-do-sa ā-kup ā-re dep-kā ā-do-sa chhe-mū-sang-sa gyū-gi-cho But this harlots-of company-in your your 80n goods zo-fat-bu-re. lót-thi-wung-sa-do, ha-do tun-dók-kā ho-nun dun to-devour-finisher-the, sake-for back-coming-on, thee-by his feast klóng-ma.' A-bo-re-nun 'e ka-su-sa ā-kup-pa, ho-ta shūkna sung, bestowedest.' Father-the-by said, .0 80n, thou always me-of dep-kā bām-nyi-de. Un ka-su-sa nyi-wung-re. sa-re-gun-na tyáng company-in art. And whatever mine being-the, allā-do-sa nyim-bā. Shen-la ka-vū māt-gāt. ā-gó-ā-nví un sum-gó is. thine Butmerriment make-should, we and to-be-glad Shū-go-yo-gang, gāt-pā. ã-do-sa 'aying ã-re māk-non-bū-re. necessary-is. Because. younger-brother your this dead-gone-the. lót-zű-bám-ma: fāt-nón-bū-re, lót-thūb-ma-o.' again-lived: lost-gone-the, again-found-is.'

[No. 25.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

LEPCHA OR RONG.

SPECIMEN II.

(Mr. David MacDonald, 1899.)

[No. 25.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

LEPCHA OR RONG.

SPECIMEN II.

(Mr. David MacDonald, 1899.)

'Aya lyang kāt-kā phyuk-bū ma-ró-num-vom nyet-kä ā-zom Formerly country one-in rich man-married-couple two-to food gyū-gi-chó nyem-bū-kā ta-grí kup kāt Ā-bo nyi-pā. ā-mū drink riches being-in male child one was. Father mother phyuk-bū-sa ā-kup ngūn-bān 'ayūk shū-la zük ma thūp-no 30% become-having work any to-do not being-got bam-nvi-shen. ā-lūn-nun ā-bo-sa ā-mū-re māk-non-ne. Hn living, afterwards father-and mother-the to-die-went. He phyuk-bū kup ngūn-bān ā-bo ā-mū-nun zūk-thóm-bū gi-chó-pang rick-man's 80% become-having father mother-by made-laid-by riches zóm-lel-nun. gi-chó-pang mók-nón-ne, \bar{a} -zóm ā-thyen-pang gun-la to-eat-finishing, riches exhausted-became, food drink altogether mók-nón-ne. Wū-du-lung ma-ró lyang khyóm-bram-lung ā-zóm-zo-sa exhausted-became. Hungering with men roaming-straying food-eating ma nyin-ban mäk-nón-ne. mot being died.

'Ayuk-tha lyang o-re-kā bo mũ ma-nyin-nung-sa ryót At-the-same-time country that-in father mother not-being orphan kup ä-jen kat nyi. O-re hu-re sa-nyi-so-nāp yang, li-sa ma-nyin-ne, child poor one was. That he day-night **8**0, saying not-is. 'avak sak nyót zāk. rip-shing sa-re nyi-wung-pang-la ryū-la did, field cultivated, flower-gardens work which being-ever well säk: gyū-gi-chó-lā thik-lyang o-bā-sa ma-ró-pang-kā-la ā-zóm bi. did : property authority there-of men-to-alsofood gave, ma-nyin-bū-kā-la gi-chó gi-chó bi-ma. o-re-nun ta-lyang-ka Un iūbū property not-being-to-also property gave. And therefore heaven-in livina TDM-88. thū-ji-gun-rān-nun lyang 0-re-sa pa-no ngun-ban God-of benignity-favour-from place that-of king become-having ham-nyi-me.

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

Once upon a time a rich married couple lived in a certain town. They had money and enough to eat and drink. They got one son. Being the child of rich parents he lived without having anything to do. Afterwards his parents died, and he, who was the son of wealthy parents, squandered the property which his father and mother had left. His money went away, and nothing was left to eat and drink. Starving he wandered about, and at last he died from want of food.

In the same country there was a poor orphan. He worked day and night in the fields, in the flower gardens, and did well all he was set to do. He became wealthy and got authority. He gave the people of that place food, and on those who were poor he bestewed wealth. Through God's mercy he therefore became the king of that place.

TŌTŌ.

The Totos live in the Sub-Himalayas, in the Baxa subdivision of Jalpaiguri. They are considered to have immigrated from Bhutan. They are a very wild tribe, and no non-Toto knows their language. There is said to be only one Toto in existence who knows a little Bengali besides his own language. The materials forwarded for the purposes of this Survey have been put together with his assistance. They comprise an incomplete list of Standard Words and Phrases, and a version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son, to which are appended some numerals and pronouns. The Parable was not accompanied by an interlinear translation, and being much abbreviated is difficult to interpret. I have added a tentative translation of most of it. I do not, however, feel certain that it is correct.

During the preliminary operations of this Survey the number of speakers in Jalpaiguri was estimated at 200. The corresponding figures at the last Census of 1901 were as follows:-

Jalpaiguri 170

The materials available are far from being sufficient for giving even the most superficial sketch of Toto grammar. I must content myself to make some scattered remarks on such points as seem tolerably certain.

Nouns, Adjectives, and Numerals.—The genitive is formed by adding the suffix k; thus, dodong-be-k, of a man. The ng preceding the b of this word is probably pronounced as an m, for we also find dudum-bi, man. The latter form shows that o and u, e and i, respectively, are interchangeable.

Adjectives can end in one of the suffixes na and ma; thus, enta-na, good; chisai-mā, younger; disui-mā, elder. Other certain instances do not occur.

The numerals most closely correspond to those in use in Lhoke. Higher numbers are, however, counted in twenties; thus, ngā kāi, five scores, hundred; ni-kwāi-tā eē, two-scores-ten, fifty.

Pronouns.—The following forms of the personal pronouns occur in the specimens:--

kā-te, I.

kā-ṭēk, nā-ṭák, nāt-kō, my.

kāi-piu, me. denimimi, denimam, nä-te, we. nāgā, thou.

nātak, ne-tak, i, thy.

modang, you. mödang-bi-kō, mo-be, your.

dēā, his. dễā hā-ji ninā, they.

dēā, kō, he.

nāt-kō kungō, our. nimusā, US.

Interrogative pronouns are hā, who? hā-rāng-gā, why?

Verbs.—The base mi is used to form a verb substantive; thus, dodong-be-k chāi ள்-கக் ன-கக், man-of sons two-persons were, a man had two sons.

The present tense can be formed by adding the suffix ro; thus, iung-ro, thou livert.

Several suffixes are used to form a past tense. The base alone apparently occurs in twi, he ran. A suffix pur is added in hay-pur, he went. The suffix ro is used in chase-ro, he lived. It is perhaps connected with lo in luang-lo, he wasted.

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A suffix chhā seems to occur in pu-chhā, said; pi-chhā, gave.

A more common suffix is $n\bar{a}$; thus, $ting-n\bar{a}$, he saw; $pu\bar{\imath}-n\bar{a}$, he said; $iy\bar{a}-pu-n\bar{a}$, they made merry.

A suffix miā seems to occur in forms such as pi-miā, gave; ho-miā, he went, etc.

The suffix pur is also used to form a future; thus, lo-pur, I will arise; hā-pur, I will go. At the end of the original manuscript of the Parable I find the forms hā-purā, I shall go; chā-puro, I shall eat; āmbālilo, I shall look.

The forms chā-nā, let us eat; iyā-nā, let us make merry, are futures or imperatives.

A verbal noun is formed by adding the suffix e; thus, ku-e, in order to tend; pu-e, to say.

A conjunctive participle is formed by adding pu-nā; thus, luī-pu-nā, having wasted; huī-pu-nā, having gone; chā-pu-nā, having eaten.

The negative particle is a prefixed $m\bar{a}$; thus, $m\bar{a}$ - $h\bar{a}$ -ro, I will not go; $m\bar{a}$ - $ch\bar{a}$ -ro, I will not eat; ma-pu-e, not to say; ma-jang, I am not.

For further details the student is referred to the specimen which follows and to the fragmentary list of words on pp. 255 and ff.

[No. 26.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

ŢŌŢŌ.

(DISTRICT JALPAIGURI.)

chāoā Chisaī-mā pu-chhā, ʻā-pā Dodong-be-k chāi ni-sā ni-nă. Younger 80n said, 'father Man-of two were. 80n8 Mo-koe kaoā pichā.' Kaoa pichhā mana oā-nā. etabang hā ko Not share give.' Share gave me tatu' gotāenā hidang iung-pu-nā chāoā jamāe-nā jeding went remained-having 80% gathered collected kairāmat mang-ta-u-ta chākā luang-lo. Tang bā. hui-punā konggoe and there alleating wasted. And property gone-having Nā lui-pură häver matar. u-mang-ta jarang-pu-nā hāt-par merā And wasted-having there famine-arising teskā chikā-tā chasero, goe lomā bit Κo pākā ku-e pitu. Găga luhe citizen one-with lived. He swine tend-to sent. even deva chā-pur ma-pue pi-miā. Kaŭeng hārang jang nāgā āsegā pui-na. deyā eat not-saying him gave. he said. 'kong-goe ā-pā lutī-hāvie-nā āsugā si-punā lābâ sung-punā. Lo-pur 'all father's Arise-will hā-pur karang-ie pue, "du" pā-lā, pā-na dong-gang-ta, iinang go-will my-father-to " O to-say. father, sinned Heaven before, chānā ma-påe, devă." eng-tā-pā Hingda-nina kang-nā hāy-pur. 20% make."; not-to-say. servant Arose father-to went. Chāoā ibang-ta-ni-na ā-pā ting-nā, tui Chāoā pung-sa chái-po-nã. Son far-was. father kissed. Son saw, ran jang-su-nā eyay-su-nā, ā-p4' 'ā-pa', doim ma-jang.' Deā рā father father, not-am. His father eng-dăpâ-ni-nă, ang-dun jup-tā ājoi'; kei kni karav korang servants-to-said, cloth. hand shoe ring feet tang-ba; denimam chā-nā iyā-nā ; si-pu-nā nā-nā ; ing-pu-nā put; eat-should feast-should; died-having lived; 100 lost-being mung-cha-nā. Iva-pu-na found-was." Herry-made.

Disui-ma ni-le īyā yong ebāoā. sā nānu hing-nā iā-nā. Lere hārāng-gā Bldest 8011 house jinisiä. Tang-miā lokāi ho-miā mung-chi-mea. eng-ta-pa mungcha-miā. went found-has-been, servant answered.

Chidang pā-nā mo-hā oye. Siritā oā-tu.

Anger made not-went inside.

'Ā-pa, netak emi hie jamare hie ete i-pu ma-iāp; ' Father, thee-of thy-word not-transgressed; dodong-be-ihi mau-mi-sha' châ-pu-ga'. Etarang chā-pu-nā pupu men-with harlotry never to-eat-gavest. eating jei-pu-nā jeī-sā.' 'Lating mo-be tangka luk-pu-nā kharach made-having squandered-having expenditure made.' your money då-pā iung-ro, nā-tak tangkā nini-mi-mung choro. A si-pu-nā gā-nā ; livest, thine He died-kaving lived; my is. money iyang-pu-nā mung-chenā dedā ā-pa-cha-nā mung-che-nā.' lost-being found-was found-was.'

LIST OF STANDARD WORDS AND SENTENCES

English.	Gurung (Nepal).	Murmi (Nepal).	Sunwär (Darjeeling).	Mägar (Nepal).
1. One	Ghrī	Ki; gi	Kā	Kat
2. Two	. Nhi	Ngi; nhi	Nishi	Nis
3. Three	Sõ, sou	Som	Sang	Som ,
4 Four	. Vii; bhli	Pli; bli	Le	Buli
5. Pive	NgL; nheo	Ngi	(Ngō)	Banga
6. Six	. Ta	Tu	Ruku	Chha
7. Seven	. Ni	Nis	(Chani)	Sāt
8. Eight	Pre, blare	Pre; bre	(Yoh)	Āţh
9. Nine	. Ku	Ku	Nau, (guh)	Nau .
10. Ten	Chiu	Chui; chiu	Das, (sashi)	Das
il. Twenty	. Nhī-siu	Bhogal	Bīs, (khal-kā)	Bis
12. Fifty	. Ngã chiu		Pachās, (khāk nishi sasi-kā)	Pachās .
13. Hundred	Pra; bhra	Bhogal nga	Sahe, (swai-kā)	Saya
14.1	Nga	Ngā .	Go	Ngā
15. Of me	Nga-la	. Ngi-li	Ã-ke	Ngau, (ngo)
16. M ine	Nga-e	Ngā-lā	À-ke-me	Ngau
17. We	Nheo-jaga	Nga-ni	Go pati	Kān
18. Of us	Nheo-jaga-la	Var -: Lada la		
19. Our	Nheo-la			Kānung
	V :		Gowā-ke	Kanung .
65. Of 17	F. 1.		Ge	Nang
60 m.	W. 1	W- la	. Ge-ke thiyo de	Nango
ea V		Ye-la		Nango
84.06	Ki		. Ge	Nāko
25. Your	Ki-la		Ge-ke de	Nākung
and lugar , a .	Nh a mae jaga la	Ye-la	. Ge-ke de	Nåkung

IN THE NON-PRONOMINALIZED HIMALAYAN DIALECTS.

1	i šwā rī	(Nej	al).		_	P	ahri (2	Nepal).			Róng (Dar	jeeling).		†et	51 (Ja	lpaigur	i).	_	English.
ni.				•		Thi-ki			•		Kāt .			•	Chē .	•			•	1. One.
i	•	•		•		Nisi	•		•	-	Nyet .	•	•		Ně	•	•	•	-	2. Two.
						Songo		•	•		Sām .	•	•		Sung	•	•		•	3. Three.
	•			•		Pingi	•-	•	•		Fa-lí .	•	•		Jī .	•	•	•	-	4. Four.
i.	•	•		•	:	Ngongu	•		•	•	Fa-ngü .	•	•	-	Ngā	•	•	•	-	5. Five.
u	•					Khugu	•		.•		Ta-rok .	•	•	•	Ţē	•	•	•		6. Six.
ye ;	nhas	а.				Nhāgi	•				Ka-kyok	•	•	٠	Dun	•	•	•	-	7. Seven.
ī.	•					Chegi	•	•	•	-	Ka-ku .	•	•	•	Gē, fie	•	•	•	-	8. Right.
		•		•	٠	Gugu	•	•	•		Ka-kyót .	•	•		Gu	•	•	•	-	9. Nine.
nha.		. •		•		Jigi		•	•		Ka-tí .	•	•		Chu-tām	bā, t	włać	•	•	10. Ten.
8	•	•				Ni-i-gi;	ni-gi				Khā kāt .	•	•	•	Nisa	•	•	•	•	11. Twenty.
18		•		•		Nge-e-g	i; ng	e-gi		•	Khā nyet sa	ka-tí	•		Ni-kwii	-tasë,	or ch	u-t ā n	bå.	12. Fifty.
a-ci	hhi;	8 a,- C	h hi			Sa-chhi			•		Khā fa-ngū	•	•	•	Ngā-kāi		•	•	•	13. Hundred.
	•					Ji					Go .	•	•	•	Kā-tē	•	•	•	•	14. I.
ŗa;	ji-ml	ha.				Nu-gu					Ka-su-sa	•	•	•	Kā-țēk		•	•	•	15. Of me.
gu	ji-m	ha			•	Nu-gu		•	•		Ka-su-53	•	•		Ki-țik	•	•	•	•	16. Mine.
i-pì			•	٠.		Ja-ri		•	•	•	Ka-yū .	•	•	•	Děninia	ni, or	nā-te	•		17. We.
i-g	ı.		•			Ja-ri-m	18		•		Ка-уй-ж	•	•			,	140 pt.s			18. Of us.
i-g	a.		•			Jā-ri-s	alä.				Ка-уй-м					,	*** ***			19. Our.
h ha				•		. Chhi	•		•	•	Hó .	•	•	•	Nä-gä	•	•	•	•	20. Thou.
hbã	-S.r			•		. Chhã-	gar .				Ā-do-sa; hó	-20-	•		Nā tak		•	•	•	21. Of thee.
bhî	-gu					. Chha-	gar		•		A-do-m; hó	-63	•		•		144 588			22. Thine.
hhi	•		•	•		. Chhi	ri.	•	•	,	(Ā-yā) ·	•	•				v+1 ***			23. You.
hhi	-gu.					. Chhā-	ri-sali	٠.			(A.yū-m).		•				407 504			24. Of you.
Льь	-ga		•			. Chhā-	ri-sali	i .			(Ă-yū- sa)						401 1.55			25. Your.

This list is incomplete. Only one bilingual TS\$5 could be found. He knew a little Bengali, but his knowledge was so limited, that it was found im possible to make him understand the farce of the various grammatical forms. He non-TS\$5 knows the language.

1				rang (Nopal)	•		Murmi	(Nepal)	١.		Sun	w ä r (I	arjeeli	ng).		Mägar (Nepal).				
k. He	•	•	•	O-oha	•	•		The	•	•	•		Hare			•		Ās-ko			
. Of him		•	•	O-cha-m	a-la			The-la	•				Hare-k	ngā de	,			Ā-cheu, (i-chü)	•	
i. His	•	•	•	O-cha-m	a-la			The-la						•••	•••			Ā-cheu .	•		
. They .	•	•		Kyā-mae	,			The-ni				•	Mur pat	i				Āsruk .	•	•	
D. Of thee	a .	•		Kyā-ma-	laigă	•	٠, ،	Then-ni	i.,	•	•	•	Harek n	ur-ke	•			Åsrukung	•	•	
l. Their	•	•	•	Kyā-ma-	la-di	•		Then-ni	i .	•		•	Mur pat	i-ke	•			Åsrukung	•		
2. Hand	•	•	•	Yo	•	•		Yā	•	•	•		Guī	•	•	•		Hut .	•	•	
S. Foot .	•	•	٠	Bhali-pu		•		Kān-ph	a-lā	•	•	•	Khoili	•	•	•	•	Hil .	•	•	
L Nose .	•	•		Na	•	•		Nā	•	•	•	•	Neh	•	•		•	Nhā .	•	•	
5. Bye .	•	•	•	Mi	•	•	• •	Mi			•	-	Mi-chi		•	•	٠	Mik .	•	•	
6. Mouth	•	•	•	Sung	•	•		Sung	•	•	•	•	Shoh	•	•	•	٠	Nyer .	•	•	
7. Tooth	•	•	•	Sa	•	•	•	Swā	•	•	•	-	Khruï		•	•	•	Shyāk .	•	•	
S. Ear .	•	•	•	Nha	•	•		Nhā-bē	•	•	•	٠	Nophā	•	•	•		Na-kep .	•	•	
9. Hair .	٠	•	•	Mui	•	•	•	Krā	•	•	•	٠	Chang	•	•	•		Chhām .	•	•	
O. Head .	•	•		Kra	•	•	• •	Thobo	•	•	•	٠	Piyā	•	•	•	•	Tālu .	•	•	
l. Tongue	٠	•		Le	•	•	• •	Le	•	•	•		Le	•	•	•		Let .	•	•	
2. Belly	•	•	•	Pho	•	•	• •	Pho	•	•	•	٠	Kaz	•	•	•	-	Tuk .	•	•	
3. Back .	•	•	•	Gho	•	•	• •	Chhigm	i.	•	•	•	Nole	•	•	•	•	Mi-chārdi	•	•	
4. Iron .	•	•		Pae	•	•	• •	Phāi	•	•	•	•	Tampar	•	•	•	•	Phalam .	•	•	
5. Gold . 6. Silver	•	•	•	Mhára	•	•	• •	Mār	•	•	•	•	Sun	•	•	•	•	Gyū .	•	•	
o. Savar 7. Father	•	•	•	Chandi	•	•	• •		•	•	•	111	Chandi	•	•	•	•	Chandi .	•	•	
8. Mether	•	•	l	Å-ba Ä-mä	•	•	• •		•	•	•	٠	Роро	•	•	•	٠	Bai .	٠	•	
9. Brother		•	Ì	A-ma Ā-ghen	•	• •	• •	Āmā		•	•	•	Ā-mā	•	•	•	•	Mai .	•	•	
). Sister	•			A-ghaen	Pr}.	der);		Jhyojhyo (young	or).	elder)		ālā	Fhep	•	•	•		Bhai .	•	•	
l, Mar .				(younge	r).	ют);	a-uga	Nana (young Mhi	(elde er).	er);	år	gà	Ālā	•	•	•		Bahini .	•	3	
2. Woman				~	•	•			• •la	•	•		Mur	•	•	•		Bhar-mı .	•	•	
		_			•	•	•	Mring-k	D .13	•	•	•	Mishi m	ır	•	•	•	Mästo .	•	•	

Nëwari (Nepal).	Pahri (Nepal).	Róng (Darjeeling).	Töjö (Jalpaigari).	English.
0	на	Hu	*****	26. He.
O-yā-gu	Hwā-gu	Hu-sa	***	27. Of him.
O-yā-gu	Hwā-gu	Hu-sa	•••	28. His.
А-рі	Hő-kari	На-уй	••••	29. They.
Ami-gu	Hō-kara-gu	На-уй-ва		30. Of them.
Ami-gu	Hồ-kara-gu	На-уй-за	****	31. Their.
Lāhā	Lā	Ā-ká	Kui	32. Hand.
Tuti	Li	Thũng-lyók	Waibe	33. Fact.
Nhāsa	Nhise	Tuk-nóm	Naba	34. Nose.
Mikhā	Migi	Ā-mik	Michui	35. Eye.
Mhutu	То	Ā-bong	Nuigang	36. Mouth.
Wā	Wā	Ā-fo	Si	37. Tooth.
Nhāepā	Nisabne	Ā-nyor	Nāma	38. Ear.
Să · · ·	sõ	Ā- <u>ta</u> óm	Puring	39. Hair.
Chhẽ	Chhe	Ā-thyik	Puding	40. Head.
Me	Me	Ā-Ii	Lēbē	41. Tongue.
Poštha	Pari	Ta-bók	Pā'mā¹	42. Belly.
Japihu	Dbusă	Ta-gum	Ju'mā	43. Back.
Na	Nge	Pun-jeng	Chaka	44. iron.
Nu	Lũ	Jer	Sona	45. Gold.
Ohs	Oha - · · ·	Kóm	Lupă	46. Silver.
Babā ; abu	Bå	Ā-bo		47. Father.
Māma	Ма	Ā-mū	Āiō	48. Mother.
Dāju (elder); kijā (younger)			Āpu (elder) ; ē' (younger) .	49. Brother.
Tată (elder); kehê (younger)			Ing	50. Sister.
Mans	Manchhi		\.	51. Man.
Miss	Māmā	Ta-'ayu	Mēm-bi	52. Woman.

	English.			Gurung	(Nepal	}.		Mar	mi (Ne	pal).		Sunwâr (Darjeel	ing).	Mägar (Nepal).
53. Wife	•	•	Miring			•		Mring .				Mi-cha .			Māhazā
54. Child	•		. Kolo-m	186	•	•		Jha-tung.			•	Ā-ta .	•	•	Zāzāko
5. Son .	•		. Jha		•	•	$\cdot $	Jhā .				Tau .	•	•	Lenzā
6. Danyht	er .		. Jha-me		•			Jhā-me .		•		Ta-mi .	•	• .	Māsto mi-zā
7. Slave			. Ghe-ba		•			Kyāpā .				Waili .	•	•	Memās .
8. Cultiva	tor .	•	. Kheti-l	la-bă			-					Kisāne .	•		Kheti-zāt-ki
9. Shephe	rd .		. Chha-r	nae				Kin gotha	lo .		•	Gothālā .	•		Luko-goțhālā
0. God .			. Prame	wera.				Lā .	•		•	Bhagwan			Bhagwān .
l. Devil			. Mho			•		Mang .			•	Palla .			Bhūt
2. Sun .	•		. Dhings	٠.				Dhini .	•		•	Nā .	•		Surje; nyāmkhan .
3. Moon .	•	•	. Lani		•	•		Lāni .		•		Lā-tosi .	•		Gehat
4. Star .	•		- Sārā ;	musara				Tārā .		•		Sorra .	•	•	Tārā
5. Fire .	•		. Ме	•		•		Ме .			•	Mi .	•		Mhe
6. Water	•	٠	. Kui	•				Kui .			•	Māk .	•		Di
7. Ночее	•	•	. Dbĩ					Tim .			•	Khi .			Im
S. Horse	•	•	. Ta	•				Tā .		•	•	Shara .	•		Gherā
9. Cow	•		. Mhe	•	•			Ме-уа .		•	•	Bi .	•	٠.	Nbyet
0. Dog .	•	•	. Naki	•				Nāki .			•	Kuchum			Chiu, (chü)
1. Cat .	•	٠	. Nawari	i .	•	•		Tāor .	•	•		Berdu .			Suthu
2. Cock .	•	•	- Nagabi	båle	-			Hwā-bā .	•		•	Wo-a.	•		Gwā-bha-lyā
3. Duck	•	•	. Hānsa	•	•	•		Hansa .		•	•	Pākhu-shābā	•		Hāns
4. Am .	•	٠	. Adhā	•	-	•		Gadhā .		•	•	Gādhā .	•		Gadhā
5. Camel	•	•	. Útha	•	•	•		Ծ ար.	•			Ūt .	•		Uņțh
6. Bird .		•	. Nemyi	٠.	•	•	•	Nyāme .		•	•	Chiha .			Gwā-jā
17. Go .		•	. Hyād		•			Niu .		•	•	Lio .			Nung-ni
8. Est		•	. Chadu		•	• ,	,	Chāu ,		•	•	Jāo .	•		Jyā-ni
79. 8a .			. Tida		•		٠	Chiu .		•		Bāk			U-ni

Nêwârî (Nepal).	Pahri (Nepal).	Róng (Darjeeling).	Tötö (Jalpaiguri).	Ezgliah.
Kalā	Majũ	Ā-yu	Ме'	53. Wife.
Machā	Cha-cha-ri	Å-kup	<u></u>	54. Child.
Kāe	Kiā-pro	Ta-grí kup	Chiố; chica	55. Son.
Mhyā-cha	Manjiũ	Ta-'ayu kup	Chāi-mē' .	56. Daughter.
Cheo	Che	Vyet	No word	57. Slave.
Kisāni	Jesëgu	Nyót-zûk-bü	Lingung chaynā	58. Cultivator.
Phaijawā	Phijhuā	Luk-ngāk-bo	Ē'-nā	59. Shepherd.
Bhagban	Dio	Rum	Iswal	60. God.
Bhūt; khyā	Bhu	Mung	Jishing	61. Devil.
Sūrja deo ; nībhā	Suja dio	Sa- <u>ta</u> nk	Chhāni	62. San.
Chandramā ; tuyu mi-lā .	Nhia dio	La-vo	Tāri	63. Moon.
Ngāgu	Nigi	Sa-hór	Puimā	64. Star.
Mi	M	Mi	Mēguē	65. Fire.
Lakhū	Laukhu	Ung	T i	65. Water.
Chhē	Chhe	Li	Si	67. House.
Sala	Storro	On	Ãia	6S. Horse,
Sa	Sa	Bik	Pikš , .	69. Cow.
Khi-chā	Kugu	Ka-jū	Kiā	70. Dog.
Bhau	Bhi	Ā-lya	Ming-ki	71. Cat.
Gőga	Gongo	Hik-bu	Kēkā	72. Cock.
Hansa; hãe	Hui	Dam-byó	Hangsā	73. Duek.
Gadha	Gadba	Póng-bū	Pāngbu . ,	74. Ass.
Űţh	Մահ	*****	Tāi-māng-gā	75. Camel.
	Jhanga	Fo	Pakhi	76. Bird.
Hã	õ	Nū	Chh š pur	77. Go.
	Ne	Zo	Char	78. Eat.
Chố	Chő	Hgan	Iyang	79. Sit.

	Eng	iak.			e	Gurung	(Nepa)	1).		Marmi	(Nepal).		Sunw ār (Darjee!	ling).		Magar (N	[epsl).	
80.	Come	•			Lago	,	•	•	Khāu	•	•	,		Piu .	•			Rā-ni .		
8L	Best				Dhon	•	•	•	. Robko ;	, puní	go.			Tnpo .	•		-	Dung-ni		
82.	Stand	•			Rat	•	•	•	Rego	•				Ropo .	•	•	•	So-ni .		
83,	Die .	•	•	•	Sid	•		•	Sin	•		•	•	Beko .			•	Si-ni	•	
84,	Give	•		•	Pin	•	•	•	Pingo	•	•	•	•	Ge-u; ge	•	•	•	Yā-ni		
85.	Run.	•	•	•	Dheodh	۵.	•	•	Yarko	•		•	•	Doro .		•		Kher-ni .	•	,
86.	υp	•	•		Tetar	•	•	•	Tor	•	•	•	.•	Tārī .	•		٠	Dhenām	•	,
87.	Near	•	•	•	Jhedhő	•	•	• ,	Ngām-r	i	•	•	•	Oth .	•	•	•	Khereb	•	
	Down	•	•	•	Maemar	ri.	•	•	Mār	•	•	•		Huige .	•	•	•	Mhākā	•	•
	Far .	•	•	•	Rhegő	•	•	•	Tharing		•	•	•	Nguni .	•	•	•	Los	•	
	Before	•	٠	•	Nin-hu		•	•	Ghāchh		٠	•	•	Nguingti	•	•	٠	Agher-lak .	•	
	Bekind		•		Li-hund		•		Lechha	•	•	•	٠	Nole .	•	•	•	Nhung-lak .	•	
	Who	•	•	•	Khae-pe	a-chā	•	•	Hālā	•	•	•	•	Sume .	•	•	•	Sa :	•	
	Why	•	•	•	To Ta-le	•	•	•	Tigā	•	•	•	1	Marme .	•	• ,	•	Hi	•	•
	And.				Re	•	•	•	Tisi Ra	•	•	•		Mur-ne . Āni	•	•	-	Hi-ki	•	•
96.	But .				Tara				Tiri	•	•	•		Shyang .		•		Ra .	•	•
97.	If .			•	Bhisan	•			Bhi-sam	(sau	ina)			Ngāna .	•	•		Ta-ra De-nang	•	•
98.	Yes .			•	Ni-ba	•			Ninnā			•		Ang .	•	•	l	Ho	•	
99.	No .		•	•	Å-ni-bi		•		Āhín					Ma-mai .		•		Mā-hā-le	•	
.00.	Alas	•		•	Ja-a				Jia	•	•			Rimehe .				Jāhāi	•	•
01.	A father	•		•	Å-bå går	ari	•	• •	Åba ki	•				Kå pope .		•		Kat bai	•	•
02.	Of a fath	ar.		•	Å-ba gh	ci-a	•		Ābi ki-l	is.		•		Kā pop-kā			- 1	Kat hayo	•	
03.	To a fath	er ,	*	•	Å-ba gå	ni lid	i		Ābi ki-	i.	•	•		Ka pop-kale				Kat hai-ki-nang	• ·	
04	From a fa	iher	•	•	À-ba gh	ni-ka	sd í	•	Åb. ki	des.		•		Ki pop-ke	•	•	-	Kat bai khātā .	•	•
	Two faths		•	•	À-le nh	d	•	•	Ābi ng	ι.	•	•	•	Pop mini	•	•	-	Nis bei harn	•	
06.	Padhers	in .	•	٠	A-ba-sus		•		Ābi ki	lo lo	•	•	٠	Pep poleki	• .	•		Bai haru .	•	

Nē	wārī	(Nepa	M).			Pahri	(Nepa	l).		Róng	; (Darjee	eling).		Tōjō (Jal	eiguri).	1	English.
Wa			•		Ya	•	•	•	•	Di .	•	•	•	Lele .		-	80. Come.
Dā	•	•	•	•	Dāe		•			Būk .	•	•		Sāpu .	• •		81. Beat.
Dà			•	•	Dõ	•				Lūk-ding	•			Lolo .		-	82. Stand.
Si .		•	•	•	Si	•	•			Māk .	•		· .	Sipunā .			88. Die.
Biu	•	•	•		Bi	•		•		Bi .	•	•	•	Pichā .	• •		84. Give.
Boā		•	•	•	Ke-ga w	ã		•	•	Dāng .		•	•	Tui .			85. Run.
Choe	•	•	•	•	Thaso	•	•			Tā-bā .	•			Jujuntayě		-	86. Up.
Sațți	•	•	•	•	Sioti		•	•		À-thól .	•	•	•	Ābēţō .			87. Near.
Ko	•		•	•	Ково	•	•	•	•	Ā-min .	•	•	•	Lijuing.			88. Down.
ŗāpā	•	•	•	•	Тара	•	•	•	•	Ā-rum .	•	•	٠	Hindā-ninā .	•	-	89. Far.
Nheone;	nhã;	pā	•	٠	Nhorkhe		•	•	•	Nahān .	•	•	•	Döngångtå	•	•	90. Before.
ione	•	•	•	•	Lumāne		•	•	•	Lon .	•	•		No	•	\cdot	91. Behind.
Sta.	•	•	•	`.	Selā	•	•	•	-	To-go .	٠	•		Hā	•	-	92. Who.
Jhhu .	•	•	•	•	Chelā	•	•	-	٠	Shū .	•	•	•	•••	•		93. What.
lhhāe .	•	•	•	•	Chāe	•	•	•	•	Shti-māt-n	ın .	•	٠	Hā-rāng-gā .	•	•	94. Why.
)	•	•	•	•	0	•	•	•	٠	Un .	•	•	٠	p 100 640	•	Ì	95. And.
Athe-nã	•	•	•	•	Må-khi	•	•	•	-	Shen .	•	•	•	995.00	٠ ,١		96. But.
)hā-la-sā		•	•		Siki .	•	•	•	•	Go-räng	•	•	•		•	1	97. If.
Cha-o .	•	•	•		Khiu .	•	•	•	•	Āk .	•	•	- 1	Kē	•	1	98. Yes.
la-khu .	•	•	•		Mā-khi .		•	•		Mā-ne .	•	•		Ma-kōē	• 1		99. No.
ihā .	•	•	•	1	Aha .	•	•	•		Āhā .	•	•	-	pos 48:	•		.00. Alss.
hha-mhi			•		Bā thi-sā		•	•		Ā-bo kāt	•	•	- 1	Icha āpā .	•	ł	Ol. A father,
hha-mha			•		Bā thi sā-		•	•		Ā-bo k iti-sa		•	-	Āpak	•		102. Of a father.
hha-mha			. .	İ	Ba thi-sa-		•	•	1	Ā-bo kāt-sa.		٠	-	400 404	•		03. To a father.
hha-mha			•		Bā thi-sā l	ionä	•	•		Ā-bo kit-nu	x .	•		T	•		04. From a father.
ii-mha be	m-b		•	1	Nisă bă		•	•	1	Ā-bo nyet	•	• .		Āpā-nisa .	•		.05. Two fathers.
au-pì.		•	•		Bāsi.		•	•	1	Ā-bo-song	•	•	•	ace +s-	• 12	13	106. Fathers.

				1
37. Of fathers	Ā-la-mae-lā	Ābā kāde-lā	Pop potchi-kā	Bai kung
08. To fathers	Ā-ba-mae-lāi	Âbā kāde-dā	Pop potchi-kale	Bai haru-ki
09. From fathers	Ā-ba-mae-hundi	Ábā kāde-den	Pop potchi-ke	Bai-ko-dekhi, or, khātā
10. A daughter	Chame ghri	Jhā-me ki	Tami kā	Kat masto mi-zā
ll. Of a daughter	Chame ghri-ā	Jhā-me ki-lā	Tami kā-ke	Kat masto mi-zau
12. To a daughter	Chame ghri-lādi	Jhā-me ki-dā	Tami kā-kale	Kat masto mi-zā ki-nāng
13. From a daughter .	Chame ghri-hundi	Jhā-me ki-den	Tami kā-ke	Kat masto mi-zā dekhi, khātā.
14. Two daughters	Chame nhi	Jhā-me ngi	Nishi tami-potchi	Nis masto mi-zā haru
l5. Daughters	Chame-mae	Jhā-me dugu	Tami potchi	Masto mi-zā haru
16. Of daughters	Chame-mac-lä	Jhā-me kāde-lā .	Tami potchi-kā	Masto mi-zā haru-kung
17. To daughters	Chame-mae-lādi	Jhā-me kāde-dā	Tami potchi-ka-le	Masto mi-zā haru-ki.
8. From daughters .	Chame-mae-hundi	Jhā-me dugu-den	Ta_i potchi-ke	Masto mi-zā haru dekhi, khātā.
9. A good man	Mhi ghri saba	Jhyā-bā ki mhi	Mur kā rimsho	Kat niko bhar-mi
0. Of a good man	Mhi ghri saba-lā	Ki jhyā-bā mhi-lā	Kā mur rimsho-ke	Kat niko bhar-mi-kung
RI. To a good man	Mhi ghri saba-lā-di	Ki jhyā-bā mhi-dā	Kā rimsho mur-kale .	Kat niko bhar-mi-ki
2. From a good man .	Mhi saba ghri-hundi	Ki jhya-bā mhi-den	Kā rimsho mur-ke	Kat niko bhar-mi dekhi, khātā.
3. Two good men	Mhi saba nhi	Mhi ngi jhyā-bā	Nishi mur-potchi rimsho .	Nis niko bhar-mi
4. Good men	Mhi saba mae	Mhi jhyā-bā kāde	Rimsho mur-potchi	Niko bhar-mi haru .
25. Of good man	Mhi saba mac-lā	Mhi jhyā-bā kāde-lā .	Rimsho mur-potchi-ke .	Niko bhar-mi haru kung
S. To good men	Mhi saba mae-lādi	Mhi jh yā-bā kāde-dā .	Rimsho mur-potchi-kale .	Niko bhar-mi haru-ki
27. From good men .	Mki saba mae-hundi	Mhi jhyà-ba kāde-den .	Rimsho mur-potchi-ngā	Niko bhar-mi haru dek
28. A good weman	Cha-me-ring saha ghri	Mring-kolā jhyā-bā	Rimsho kā mishe	Kat niko māhazā bhar-m
19. A had bey , .	Ā-mbs puin jhs-jhs ghri	Mhi jha-jha ä-jhyä-bä	Kā to al ma-rimsho	Kat mā-jāti chhan-zā
10. Good women	Sala cha-me-ring-mae	Mring-kolā kāde jhyā-bā	Rimsho mish-potchi .	Niko māhazā bhar-mi ha
31. A bad girl	A-mile che-mo-ring jhe-jha	Mring-kolā jha-jha ā-jhyā- bā.	Kā ma-rimsho misha al .	Kat mā-jāti bhauzā .
M. Good	Sehs.	Jhyā-hā	Rimsho	Jāti; niko
M. Better	Bebs	Jhyā-bā	Rimsho	Gepcha

Nēwārī (Nepal).	Pahrī (Nepal).	Rong (Darfeeling).	Toto (Ja:paiguri).	English
Bau-pi-gu	Bā si-yā-gu	Å-bo-seng-sa		197. Of fathers.
Ban-pī-ta; bau-pī-yā-ta	Bā si-yū-tā	Â-be-song-su		108. To fathers.
Babā-pini-pāchě	Bā si-yā lo-nā	Ā-bo-lyāng-nun		109. From tathers.
Chha-mha mhyā-cha.	Manjiữ thi-sā	Tayu-kup kit		110. A daughter.
Chha-mha mhyā-cha-yā .	Manjiũ thi-sā-gu	Tayu-kup-kat-sa		III. Of a daughter.
Chha-mha mhyā-cha-yā-ta .	Manjiũ thi-sū-tā	Tayu-kup-kāt-sa	*****	112. To a daughter.
Chha-mha mhyā-cha-pāchē	Manjiû thi-sā lo-nā	Taya-kup-kāt-l y āng-nun .		113. From a daughter.
Ni-mha mhyà-cha	Ni-sā manjiữ	Tayu-kup nyet	*****	114. Two daughters.
Mhyā-cha-pĭ	Manjiũ-si	Tayu-kup song .	•••••	115. Daughters.
Mhyā-cha-pani-yā	Manjiũ-si-yū-gu	Tayu-kup-song-sa		116. Of daughters
Mhyā-cha-pì-ta	Manjiũ-si-yā-tā	Tayu-kup-song-sa		117. To daughters.
Mhyā-cha-pini-pāchē	Manjiũ-si-yā lo-nā	Tayu-kup-lyāng-nun .		118. From daughters.
Chha-mha bhi manu	Bhingu manchhi thi-sā .	Ma-ró ā-ryūm kāt		119. A good man.
Chha-mha bhi manu-yā .	Bhingu manchhi thi-sā-gu .	Ma-ró ä-ryùm kāt-sa .	***	120. Of a good man.
Chha-mha bhi manu-yā-ta.	Bhingu manchhi thi-sā-yū-tā	Ma-rú ā-ryūm kāt-sa .	70.001	121. To a good man.
Chha-mha bhi manu pāchē	Bhingu manchhi thi-sā lo-ni	Ma-ró ä-ryüm käi-lyäng-nun	*****	122. From a good man.
i-mha bhi manu	Ni-sa bhingu manchhi	Ma-ró nyet ā-ryūm	 .	123. Two good men.
shi manu-pi	Bhingu manchhi kāri .	Ma-ró ä-ryūm-song	******	124. Good men.
Shi manu-pi-gu	Bhingu manchhi kari-gu .	Ma-ró ā-ryüm-song-sa .	······	125. Of good men.
Shi manu-pi-ta	Bhingu manchhi kāri-yā-tā	Ma-ró ā-ryūm-song-sa .	*****	126. To good men.
Shi manu pāchē	Bhingu manchhi kāri lo-nā	Ma-ró ä-ryüm-song-lyäng- nua.	*****	127. From good men.
Shi misā chha-mha	Bhingu māmā thi-sā.	Tayu ā-ryūm kāt		128. A good woman.
hha-mha ma-bhì-mha kāe ma-chā.	Mā-ji bābā-cha thi-sā .	Ong ma-ryù-na-bo kāt	******	129. A bad boy.
Shì-pì misā-ta.	Bhingu māmā-to	Ā-ryām taya song	*****	130. Good women.
hha-mha ma-bhi-mha i mhyše ma-chā.	Mā-ji māmā-cha thi-sā	Tayu kat ma-ryū-na-bo .	*****	131. A bed girl.
hi	Bhingu	Ā-ryūm	Entire	13z. Good.
ti bhì	Māji-gu bhingu	Ā-ryām	Advance	133. Beiter.

English.	Gurang (Nepal).	Murmi (Nepal).	Sunwär (Darjeeling).	Mägar (Nepu,.
134. Best	Saba	Jhyā-bā jhyā-bā	Dāshyo	Bighna jāti
135. High	Nuba	No-bā	Lāshyo	Ghyancha
136. Higher	Nuba	No-bā	Khub läshyo	Ghyancha
137. Highest	Nuba	No-bā no-bū	Agher läshyo	Ghyancha
138. A horse	Taghri	Tāki	Sharā	Kat ghorā
139. A mare	Ta ma-ma ghri	Tā māmā ki	Sharā ā-mo	Kat ghorî
140. Horses	Ta-mae	Tā kāte . ,	Sharā putchi	Ghotā haru
141. Mares	Ta ma-ma mae .	Tā māmā kāte	Sharā putchi ã-mo	Ghorī haru
142. A ball	Ba-sat lhyā ghri .	. Särhe ki	Biyaph-po-kü	Kat sanryā phor
143. A cow	Mbe ghri	. Me māmā ki	Bikā	Kat nhet
144. Bulls	Ba-sat lhyā mae .	. Särhe käte	Biyaph patchi	Phor haru
145. Cows	Mhe mae	. Me māmā kāte	Biang patchi	Nhet haru
146. A dog	. Na-ki dho ghri .	. Nāki ki	. Kuchum kā	Kat chiu (i.e. chū)
147. A bitch	Na-ki ma-ma ghri .	. Nāki māmā ki	- Kuchumi kā	. Kat chiu chauri
14S. Dogs	Na-ki jaga	. Nāki kāte	. Kuchum patchi	. Chiu haru
149. Bắches	Na-ki ma-ma jaga .	. Nāki māmā kāte	. Kuchmi patchi .	. Chiu chauri haru
150. A he-gost	Ra bokya ghri .	. Poke ki	. Chā-she kā	. Kat bokā
151. A female goat .	. Ra ma-ma ghri	. Rā māmā ki	. Chā-she kā	Kat rhā
152. Goats	Rajaga	. Bā kāto	. Chā-she patchi .	Rhā-haru
153. A male door .	· Fo dārhyā ghri .	. Tāngi hvā-bā ki	Kish-she ā-po	Darhyā mirga
154. A female desc	· Fo murli ghri	. Tāngi māmā ki	. Kish-she ā-mo	. Murli mirga
155. Deer	. Fo	. Tangi	. Kish-she putchi .	. Mirga
156. I am	Nga ma	Ngā mu-lā	Go-lā nang	. Ngā le
157. Thee art	Kin mu	Ye mu-lā	. Ge-lā bā-ngide	. Nang le
156. He is	. Chan zou	The mu-lä	. Hare bā-skotoha	. Asae le
150. We are	Ngi-jag mu	. Ngi-ni kāte mu-lā .	. Go-patchi nang .	. Kan-ko le
160. Yes, are	Nha-mo-jagan mu-la	Ye- nikāte mu-lā	. Ge bā-sho chhuu	Nākruk le
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Nëwari (Nepal).	Pahri (Nepal).	Rong (Darjeeling).	Töiö (Jalpaiguri).	English.
Dakale bhi	. Dika bhingu	Ā-ryūm		134. Best.
Tājā	. Taja	Thū	Hindā-ninā (see No. Si) .	135. High.
Upotājā	. Māji-gu tājā	Ā-thū	•••••	136. Higher.
Dakale tājā	Dika tājā	Ā-thū ā-thū	•••••	137. Highest.
Chha-mha sala .	. Soro thi-mā	On kit	•••••	138. A horse.
Chha-mha mā sala .	. Soro mãgu thi-mā	On ä-mót kät	*****	139. A mare.
Sala-ta	. Soro kāri	On-song		140. Horses.
Mā sala-ta	. Mägu soro kāri	On-mót-song	•••••	141. Mares.
Doh chha-mha .	. Doh-sā thi-mā	Long kāt		142. A ball.
Sā chha-mha	. Mā-sā thi-mā	Bik-gū kāt	****	143. A cow.
Dohã-ta	. Doh-sā kāri	Long-song	•••••	144. Bulls.
Sā-ta	. Mā-sa kāri	Bik-gü-song		145. Cows.
Chha-mha khi-chā .	Kuju thi-mā	Kajū kāt	••••	146. A dog.
Chha-mha mā khi-chā	. Mā kuju thi-mā	Kajū-mót kāt		147. A bitch.
Khi-chi-ta	. Kuja kāri	Kajŭ-song		148. Dogs.
Mā khi-chā-ta	. Mā kuju kāri . , .	Kajū-mót-song	•	149. Bitches.
Chha-mha dugu	Dugo thi-ma	Sa-ār-bu kāt	•••••	150. A he-goat.
Chha-mha chole .	. Mā chalā thi-mā	Sa-ār-mót kāt		151. A female goat.
Dugu-chā-ta	. Chala-tõ	Sa-ar-song	•	152. Goats.
Bā chalā ohha-mha	- Gü-ohalā thi-mā	Sa-ka-bu kāt		153. A male deer.
Mā chalā chha-mba .	· Gű-mā-ohalā thì-mā	Sa-ka-mót kāt		154. A female deer.
Chali	. Gű-chalā	Sa-ka	*****	155. Deer.
Jidu	- Ji khiu	Gogum		156. I am.
Chha du	- Chhi khiu	Но	•••••	157. Thou art.
O du	Hỗ khiu	Hu gam	******	158. He is.
Ji-pi da	. Jā-ci khin	Кауй дин		159. We are.
Chlaide	. Chhā-ri khin	Нб-а	*****	160. You are.

English.	Gurung (Nepal).	Murmi (Nepal).	Sunwär (Darjeeling).	Mägar (Nepal).
61. They are	· Cha-jagan mu · · ·	The-ni kāte mu-lā	Me-ko-putchi bā-te-mā .	Hosruk le; asruk le .
52. I was	. Nga mu-lā	Ngā mu-bā	Go bā-sho nang	Ngā leyā
3. Thou wast .	Kin mu	Ye mu-bā	Ge bā-sho thi	Nāng leyā-s
4. He was	. Cha mu-lā	The-ni mu-bā	Mare bā-sho thiyo	Hos leyā; as leyā .
5. We were	Cha-man (sic) mu-lä	Ngā-ni kāte mu-bā	Go-patchi bā-sho naki .	Kān leyā
66. You were	. Nha-me jagan mu-lä .	Ye-ni kāte mu-bā	Ge-patchi bā-ni	Nākruk leyā
7. They were .	. Cha-me jagan mu-lä	The-ni kāte mu-bā	Hari-patchi bā-ni-thiye .	Hosruk leyā
8. Be	. Tage	Tā-bā	Nawe	Chhānni
9. To be	. Ta-bi lasem	Tà-lā	Nawe	Chhān-ki
0. Being	Tae-nambu	Tā-si chi-bā	Dung-so-ngang	Chhammi-le
1. Having been .	Tala khāmbā	Tā-lā jhinji	Thung-so-ngā	Chhān-mu hikā .
2. I may be	. Nga tab-mu	Ngā tā-ham-lā	Go dum-nang	Ngā chhān-ki hik-le
3. I shall be	Nga tab-mu	Ngā tā-lā	Go ã-kale dum chai-nā .	Ngā chhān-me .
4. I should be .	. Nga ta-la tum-mu	Ngā tā-bo-lā	Go ã dum-chai-nā	Ngā chhān-ki par-le .
5. Beat	. Tõ	Rop-ko	Тара	Dāthuk-ni
6. To beat	Tõim	Rop-lä	Tup-cha .	Dāthuk-ki
7. Beating	. Tősi nambu	Rop-si chi-bā	Tum-na-tum	Dāthuk-nai-le
8. Having beaten .	Tốmi	Rop-lā jin-ji ,	Tup-she-ngā-mi	Dāthuk-nu helā ,
9. I beat	. Ngai tō-ām	Ngāi rop-lā	Go tup-nu	Ngā dāthuk-le .
0. Then beatest .	. Ki tő-si na-bu	Ye-se rop-chi	Ge tap-ne	Näng däthuk-le .
l. He besis	. Chai tõ-si na-bu	The-se rop-på ,	Mem tup-bs	Āchai dāthuk-le
2. We beat	. Ngi jaga to	Ngā-ni kāte rop-lā	Go-putchi tubia	Kān-e dāthuk-le .
3. You beat .	. Nha-me jaga-di to	Ye-ni kāte-se rop-chi	Ge tupo	Nākur-e dāthuk-le
i. They beat .	Cha-mae jaga-di to	The-mi kāte-se rop-pā	Mem tup-ni-mi	Hos-ruk-e däthuk-le
	. Ngā-ji hoā-ji	Ngai rop-chi	*****	Ngei dāthuk-ā .
6. There bearing (Pas Tones).		Ye-se rop	her may	Nang-e dāthuk-ā
7. Ho beat (Pasi Touse)	. Chá-ji hoà-ji	The-se rop	·	Āchai dāthuk-ā
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Newiri (N	epal)) .		Pahrī (Nepal)	•		Róng (Darjeeling).	Tōiō (Jalpaiguri).	English.
A-pi du .	•	•	•	Hõ-ri khiu	•	•	•	Hu-yū-a	*****	161. They are.
Ji du .	•	•	•	Ji du .	•	•		Gonyi	******	162. I was.
Chha du .		•		Chhidu .	•	•		Hó nyi		163. Thor wast.
O du .	•	•	•	Hỗ du .			•	Hunyi		164. He was.
Ji-pī du		•	٠	Jā-ri du .		•	•	Kayā nyi	*****	165. We were.
Chhik-pì du .		•		Chhi-ri du		•	•	Hú nyi	****	166. You were.
A-pìdu		•		Hỗ-ri đu	•	•	•	Huyā nyi	*****	167. They were.
Ju-e		•		Khin .		•	•	Nyi-shong	******	168, Be.
Ju-e-ta		•	-	Khi-tā-ri		•	• '	Ngun-shong-kā	******	169. To be.
Ju-yā chố .		•	-	Khi-ti-ni	•	•		Ngun-nun	•••••	170. Being.
Ju-e dhữ-gu .		•	•	Khi dhongu	•	•	- 1	Ngün-lyang-nun	******	171. Having been.
Ji ju-e phai .		•	•	Ji khi phungi	•	•	•	Go ngăn-pă	*****	172. I may be.
Ji ju-e-tini ; ji j	а-е	•	•	Ji khi-tingi	•	•	• ;	Go ngun-shong	******	173. I shall be.
Ji ja-e		•	•	Ji khi mā	•	•	•	Go ngān-gāt		174. I should be.
D _{ii} , ,		•	•	Dae .	•	•	•	Lyūp	************************************	175. Beat.
Dā-e-ta		•	•	Dāe-tā .	•	•	•	Lyūp-shong	*****	176. To beat.
Dā-yā cho-na .		•		Die-tini	•	•	•	Lyāp-bām	*****	177. Beating.
Dā-e dhữ-ka .		•		Dae dho-ga-ri	•	•	•	Lyūp-nun	*****	178. Having beaten.
Jī dā-e		•	•	Na dži .	•	•	•	Go lyāp	40****	179. I beat.
Chhã dã		•	•	Chha dae	•	•		Hó lyāppung	•••••	180. Thou bestest.
Õ dä-yä chona		•	•	Ho-na da	•	•	•	Hu lyūp-bām	****	181. He beats.
Ji-mi-să dă-e .		•	•	Ja-ni dáe	•	•	•	Ka-yū lyūp	******	182. We beat.
Chhi-mi-sã dā .		•		Chhi-ri dāe	•	•	•	Hó lyāp	*** ***	183. You beat.
A.mi-să dā-yā ch	ona			Hỗ-ri đã	•	•	•	Hu-yū lyūp	*****	184. They best.
līdā-yā		•	•	Na dā-rī	•	•	•	Go buk	*** ***	185. I beat (Past Tense).
Chhã dā-la .		•	-	Chhã dã-nă	•	•	•	Hó bukkung	427.000	186. Thou beatest (Pasi
Õdā-la		•	-	Ho-na dâ-ri	•	•	-	Hubak	*****	187. He beat (Past Tense).

English.	Gurung (Nepal).	Murmi (Nepal).	Sunwär (Darjeeling).	Mägar (Nepal).
88. We heat (Past Tense).	Ngi-ji hoà-ji	Ngāchhi rop	1	Kān-koi dāthuk-ā
89. You heat (Past Tense)	Nha-mac-ji hoā-ji	Yenchhi rop		Nākoi dāthuk-ā
90. They beat (Past Tense)	Cha-mac-ji hoā-ji	Thenchhi rop		Āsurk-e dāthuk-ā
91. I am beating .	Nga tõ-si na-bu	Ngãe rop-si chi-bā	Go tum-na-tum pāhtā .	Ngãe dâthuk-nai-le .
92. I was beating	Nga-di tő-si mu-lä	Ngãe rop-si chi-bā mu-bā .	Go tum-na-tum bā-ti .	Ngae dathuk-nai-leya
93. I had beaten .	Ngai tõ-ā-lā	Ngãe rop-si,jinji	Go tum-ne-tum-tā	Ngãe dāthuk-ni hehani (s
94. I may beat	Ngai to	Ngãe rop-là hām-là	Go tup-nga-na	Ngāe dāthuk-ki hek-le
95. I shall beat .	Ngai to-mu	Ngũc rop-lã		Ngãe dāthuk-le .
96. Thou wilt beat .	Ki-ji hoā-ma	Ye-se rop-li		Nang-e dāthuk-le .
97. He will beat .	Chā-ji hoā-ma	The-se rop-la	*****	Achai dathuk-le
98. We shall beat .	Ngi-ji hoā-ma	Ngāchhi rop-lā		Kānkoi dāthuk-le .
99. You will beat .	Nha-mae-ji hoā-ma	Yenchhi rop-la		Nākurk-e dāthuk-le .
00. They will beat .	Cha-mae-ji hoā-ma .	. Thechhi rop-lā		Äsurk-e däthuk-le .
01. I should beat .	. Ngai dhon-là to-mu .	Ngae rop-to-lā	Go ã-kale tup-chā mār-bā .	Ngāe dāthuk-ke pari-o
02. I am beaten .	Nga-lāi tő-ādi	Ngā-tā rop-ji	Go tup-chā puing-sāi .	Ngā-ki dung-a
03. I was beaten .	Ngà tô-di	Ngā-tā rop-si chi-ji	Go tup-chā puing-sāi thiyo .	Ngā-ki dung-nu dinhā
94. I shall be beaten	Nga-lāi tō-ā	Ngā-tā rop-ka-lā	Go tup-chā puing-chā chhuố	Ngâ-ki dung-le .
205. I go	Nga hyām	Ngā ni	Go lāi-na	Ngā nung-le
206. Thou goest .	Kin hyām .' .	Ye nin	. Ge lai-na-we	Nang nung-le-s .
207. He goes	Chan hyām	. The ni-li	. Me lāi-bā	Āsai nung-le
208. We go	Ngi hyama	. Ngā-ni ni-sai .		Kānko nung-le .
209. You go	. Nha-mac hyāma .	Ye-ni mu (sic)		Nakruk nung-le
210. They go	. Cha-mae hyāma .	The-ni mu (sic)		Āsruk nung-le .
211. I went	. Nga hya-la	Ngā ni-ji	Gola-ti	Ngā nung-ne
312. Thou wentest .	. Ki h yā-lā	Ye nî-jî	. Ge la-te	Nang nung-ne-s
213. He went	. Cha hyá-là	. The ni-ji	. Me lä-pä	Hosai nung-ne .
214. We went	Ngi hyi-ji	Ngi-ni ni-ji	•	Kān-ko nung-ā

Nëw ari (Nepe	1).		Pahri (Nep	mi).		iting (Darjeeli	æ).		. Tötő (Jalyaigeri).	English.
Ji-mi-se da-ya .	•		Ja-na dā-rī .	•		Ka-yā bak .		•	451 524	188. We beat (Past Tenne)
Chhi-mi-se dā-la	•	•	Chha-na dā-rī	•		Hó bak	•		##****	189. You beat (Past Tense)
A-mi-se dā-la .	•	•	Ho-kā-na dā-rī			Ha-yā buk .	•		494 949	190. They beat (Past Tense)
Ji dā-yā cho-nā	•	•	Na dā-nā chongi	•		Go buk-bam .	•		40000	191. I am beating.
Ji dā-yā cho-nāo o	ho-nā	•	Na dā-nā chố .	٠	•	Go buk-bām-bā	•		1 1 1 400000	102. I was heating.
Ji da-e dhu-na	•	٠	Na dše dhunga		•	Godbuk-ang .	•	•	******	193. I had besien.
Ji dā-e phai .	•	•	Na dãe phungi	•		Go buk-khu .		•	\$84.04 0	194. I may beat.
Ji dā-e-tini .	•		Na dāe-tingi .	•		Go buk-shong .	•		Ted <u>Dad</u>	195. I shall beat.
Chhả dà-i .	•	٠	Chhã dã	•		Hó buk-shet .	•	•	******	196. Thon wilt beat.
Õ dā-i	•	٠	Ho-na dâ .		•	Hu buk-shet .		•	802.00	197. He will beat.
Ji-mi-sẽ dā-e .	•	٠	Ja-na dā .	•	•	Ka-yŭ buk-shóng	•		******	198. We shall beat.
Chhi-mi-se di-i	•	•	Chha-na dā .	•	•	Hó buk-shet .	•	•	0.00.000	199. You will beat.
A-mi-sê dā-i .		-	Ho-kā-na dā .	•	•	Hayû buk-shet	•		\$0.1,000	200. They will heat.
Jī dā-e mā .	•	•	Na dāc mā .	•		Go buk-gat .	•	•	404 000	201. I should beat.
Ji-ta dā-yā cho-na	•	•	Ji dă-ri	•		Ka-sum buk-ang	•	•	******	202. I am beaten.
Ji-ta dāşla-		-	Ji dā-gu du .		•	Ka-sum buk .	•	•	****	203. I was beaten.
Ji-ta dā-i-ti-ni .	•	-	Ji dā-tini .	•		Ka-sum buk-sbet	•	٠	bee 99	204. I shall be beaten.
Jio-ne	•		Ji woë	•	٠	Go núng .	•		997009	205. I go.
Chha hũ .	•	•	Chhi wõ .	•		Hó nóng .	•	-	465749	206. Thou goest.
Оо-па	•	•	Hỗ wỗ	•	-	Hu nún-det .	•	•	245000	207. He goes.
li-pi o-ne .	•	-	Jā-ri letiū .	•		Ka-yā nóng .	•	•	050 beq	208. We go.
Chhi-pĩ hữ .	•	•	Chhā-ri lāsõ .	•		Hó nóng .	•	-	PTR +B0	209. You go.
A-pi o-ni .		-	Ho-kā-ri letāri	•		Ha-yū nóng	•		90° 150	210. They go.
Jio-nā .	•		Ji wāe-gu du .			Gonón	•		202 592	211. I went.
Chha o-nā .		•	Chhi wāe-gu du	•		Hó nóng-ngung	•		400,000	212. Thou wentest.
О о-па		•	Hő wő-gu du .	•		Hu nón		-	¢he ese	213. He went.
Ji-pìo-na .			Jā-ri letiũ .			Ka-yū nóng	•		990 sas	214. We went.

English.	Gurung (Nepal).	Murmi (Nepal).	Sunwār (Darjeeling). •	Magar (Nepal).
215. You went	Nha-mae hyā-ji	Ye-ni ni-ji		Nākruk nung-ā
216. They went	Cha-mae hyā-ji • •	The-ni ni-ji	*****	Āsruk nung-ā
21 7. Go	Hyād	Niu	Lāwā	Nung-ni
218. Going	Hyār-bā	Ni-si ni-bā	La-chā	Nung-nai-le
219. Gone	Hyāl-khā-di	Ni-la jinji	La-tā	Nung-nu hekā .
220. What is your name?.	Ki mi to-cha?	Ye-lā min tikā ?	I në mar-me?	Nākung ārmin hi āle ?
221. How old is this horse?	Chu ta kati khip ta-di? .	Chu tā kāti khe-pā tā-ji? .	Iko sharā dushya burshā bā-me?	Isai ghorā kurik bhurh chhān-ā?
222. How far is it from here to Kashmir?	Jhoile Kashmir kate rhegü mu?	Chu-kyām Kashmir kāti thāring mu-lā?	Ake-ngā Kashmir dushong ngoni chha ?	Itai Kashmir kurik los le
223. How many sons are there in your father's	Nha-me ä-bä dhen-ri kati jha mu?	Ye-lā āp-lā dim-ri jhā kāde mu-lā ?	I popo khi-mi tau dish bā- ni-mi ?	Nang-u bay-o im-ang kuri lenzā mizā le ?
house? 224. I have walked a long way to-day.	Nga tingnyā rhegũ bhradi .	Ngā tini thāring prā-ji	Mu-lāti dushyo lāng gāpti .	Ngā chini dherai los hoā
225. The son of my uncle is married to his sister.	Ngia kabaden-e jha chae ā- nga de biha tu-di.	Ngā-lā āgu-lā jhā the-lā ā-ngā den-chhyām bihā la-bā.	Ā-pop-kāuchhā ā-tau-ke hiha ā-lo mishya nu dum- tā.	Ngau kanchhā bay-o len- mi-zā āchiu bahini-khā bihā chhān-ā.
226. In the house is the sad dle of the white horse		Dim-ri tār tā-lā kāthi mu-lā	Khi-mi bushye sharā ā- ngoshtike chha.	Im bhitri bocho ghorā kāt le.
227. Put the saddle upon his back.	Cha-e gho-ri kathi thin .	The-lā chigma-ri kāthi thângo.	Āchime ngoshtike lāe-pao .	Hochio pith-tāki kāthi kā
228. I have beaten his son with many stripes.	Cha-e jha-lādi nga-di lhe lana dhon-di.	The-la jha-ta angi rop-chi .	Go-mi ā-tau-kale karrā-mi dherai tup-tā.	Hochio mi-zā-ki ng dāthuk-ā.
229. He is grazing cattle on the top of the hill.	He nu-ba thum-ri cha-di kheodo chha-sem.	Pra-ri tā-ji ra-me mahi chhā-si chi-bā.	Hayu dängrä täri meshbi ngoshyä bä-tä.	Hosai thumka tāki bas õsane.
230. He is sitting on a hors under that tree.	tisim mu-là.	The tong dhi-ri tā ki-ri the chi-bā mu-lā.	Hayu meko rāwā-pongmi sherā tāri-mi bāshyo bā-tā.	Hosai murtung mhāke hos ghorā tāki kal-nu omine
231. His brother is taller than his sister.	mae ā-lī nu-ba mu-lā.	The-lā āle the-lā āngā oisi no-bā mu-lā.	Me ā-nu me ā-loba misha-lā- bhundā lāshyo chha.	Hocheo bhāyai hoch bahini denang ghyāncha
232. The price of that is two rupees and a half.	Cha-e sae mhui nhi se mohar ghri.	The-lä säi sikä ni-se adhuli	Meko ā-muli khur nisi āṭh ānā bā-tā.	Hocheo mol nis rupi adhili le.
233. My father lives in that small house.	ri ti-sim.	Ngā ābā dim jha-jha-ri chi-bā mu-lā.	A popo meko ashcha khi-mi ba-ba.	Ngau bai hosai mārchi im-ang ũ-le.
234. Give this rapee to him		Chu tanga the-ta pingo .	Eko bi-ti meko-kale giu .	Isai rupiyā hosko-ki yanh
235. Take those rupees from him.		Uchu tāngā the kyam-se kingo.	Meko bi-putchi nelle pito .	Hos rupiyā hosai khā lāni.
236. Beat him well and him him with ropes.	ba-si kradu.	The-ta māri ropko, chho-se khigo.	Me-ko-le rimso-pa tup mino (?) meko-kale ghele-me rimso-wa preng-do.	Hosai bes-khātā dāthu- doria chhyāk-ni.
237. Draw water from the well.	Inar huinle kui dhuidu .	Tun-di-se kni tego	Pokhri-ngā pāko chhyolo .	Inārin di don-ni .
238. Walk before me	Ngae nin bhrada	Ngā-lā ngāchhā prāu	Á-maiti gâko	Ngau aghi hoā-ni .
239. Whose boy comes be kind you?	sim?	haji,	I-nole su-kā ā-tau pime?	Su-o chhan-zā nāku nhung-lāk ram-ne?
240. From whom did you buy that?		khu-bū.	Meko ge suke-ngā gyābi? .	Su-khātā hosai loā ?.
241. From a shopkeeper of the village.	Nā sarla-c pasalyā ghri-de ghlu-di.	Nāmsā-lā pāsale-chā	Gäun-ngā dokāne-ke-ngā gyaptā.	Lähäng kat pasele-khätä

Nëwärî (Nepal).	Pahrī (Nepal),	kóng (Darjesling).	Tôjō (Jalpaiguri).	English.
Chhi-pi o-na	Chhā-ri lāro	Ho nóng	***	215. You went.
A-pi o-na	Ho-kā-ri lāŭ	Ha-yù nóng	******	216. They went.
на	wo	Nū	****	217. Go.
O-nā cho-nā	Wő-tini	Non-det	······	218. Going.
O-ne dhữ-ka-la	Wő-gu	Nón	••••••	219. Gone.
Chhã nã chhu?	Chha nau chala?	Ā-do-sa ā-bryāng shū gó ? .		220. What is your name?
The sala guli buddhā ju-la?	U soro gwālā jejő?	On å-re sa-tet gån-bo gú?.	our pad	221. How old is this horse?
Tha-nà Kasmir guli-ta tapa?	U-thā-nā Kashmir gwālā tāpā?	Ā-bā-nun Kāshmīr sa-tet ru-ung gó?	P** pba	222. How far is it from here to Kashmir?
Chhả babā-yā chhế go-mha kā-c-pì du?	Chhĩ bác chhe gu-sá-lũ kiá-pro du ?	Ā-kup sa-tet nyí ā-do-sa ā-bo li-kā?		223. How many sons are there in your father's
Thaữ tāpāk ju-e dhuna .	Thra tāpā-ka wõe lā-ni .	Sa-rong go ā-rum-nunlóm- bā di.		house? 224. I have walked a long way to-day.
Ji-mha kakā-yā kāe-yā-ke o-yā kehē bihā ju-yā chona.	Nu dā-yā kiā-pro-yā hō-yā manjiu nāpa bihā jā.	Ka-su ā-kū-sa ā-kup hu-do ā-nóm deb-kā-bri-thik.	***	225. The son of my uncle is married to his sister.
Tuyu-mha sala-yā kāṭhi chhẽ du.	Chhe-go tuiraj soro-yā-gu kathi du.	Lí-kā on a-dām-sa gó nyi .		226. In the house is the saddle of the white horse.
O-yā jandhu-li kāthi ti .	Hő-yā mhã-ga kathi tā .	Hado ta-gům-ků gó kyóp .	251.000	227. Put the saddle upon his back.
Jī o-yā kāc-yā-ta tako masi dā-e dhu-na.	Hõ-yā kiā-pro-yā-ta na choho dā-ni.	Go hu-do kup ā-li mól-la lyāp.	******	228. I have beaten his son with many stripes.
O parbata-yā chokā-sa sāme ja-yā cho-na.	Kakarā cho-ga hō sāhā- bāhā jhā.	Hu-nun thân-chung pong- kāng-kā lóng zót-bām.		229. He is grazing cattle on the top of the hill.
O simā-yā ko-sī chha-mha sala-sa chonāc chona-	Chho simā purko soro thi- mā hō chō.	Hu kung pe-re ä-min on plong-kängan nyi.	*****	230. He is sitting on a horse under that tree.
O-yā kijā o-yā kehē-yā sisā ta-dhi ka.	bhāju tājā.	Hado yeng hado nóm-len rhen.	****	231. His brother is taller than his sister.
O-yā mu ni takā tyā kha	Wo-yā mữ nis takā o bâ takā.	phet.	••••	232. The price of that is two rupees and a half.
Ji babā o chiki-dhā-gu chhē chonā chona-	Wo chikhā-gu chhe nu bā chō.	Ka-su bo pe-re li ā-chum- bo-kā ngān-bām.	*****	233. My father lives in that small house.
Tho takā o-yā-ta biu •	The tākū hỗ-yā-tā bi	Kóm ā-re ha-dom bi	••••	234. Give this rupee to him.
O takā o-li-se kā	Ho-thā-nā wo takā kās	Kóm o-re-song hu-do- lyang-nun lyó-s.		235. Take those rupecs from him.
khipa-tä chiu.	Hő-yá-tā niakka dás pákhi- na chi.	Byū-la ha-dom buk-nun tākpo-sa dām-tho.		236. Best him well and bind him with ropes.
Tü-thi-sa la să	Takha lukhu sali	Ung-lāp-nun ũng rhyā	******	237. Draw water from the well.
Ji nheone nyā-si-nu .	Nu-yā sīka nghoā go Chhā lumane sālā bābā-chā	Ka-su nahūn nā	148.00	238. Walk before me.
Chhã lione so-yā kāe machā o-yā cho-na?	yu:			239. Whose boy comes be- hind you?
O chhả gumhasyà-ke nyà-nà?	kā-nā?	gó?	1>2	240. From whom did you buy that?
Gā-yā chha-mha pasalya yākē.	Desa-yā-gu pasaja thi-sā- nā-la-gā.	Kyūng pasol-mo-lyūng-nun pār.	····	241. From a shopkeeper of the village.

COMPLEX PRONOMINALIZED LANGUAGES.

EASTERN SUB-GROUP.

To the east of the valley of Nepal we find a series of dialects of a much more complex nature than those described in the preceding pages. All the characteristics mentioned in the introduction to the Himalayan languages are found in them, though not always in one and the same dialect.

The tendency to distinguish the person of the subject by means of pronominal affixes is found in all of them. Thus a suffix $ng\bar{a}$ is commonly added in the first person singular. The regular place of this suffix is between the base and the auxiliary. Compare Thāmi hok- $ng\bar{a}$ -du, being-I-am, I am.

It has already been remarked that this distinction of the person of the subject by means of pronominal suffixes is in agreement with the practice of Munda languages. It is interesting to note in this connexion that those forms of speech likewise insert the pronominal suffix indicating the subject between the real verb and the auxiliary. Compare Santālī rāngāch'-ed-iñ tahrīkana, hungering-I-was, I was hungering. Moreover, the use of personal suffixes is not necessary in either group. In the Mundā languages it is more common to add the pronominal suffix to the word immediately preceding the verb. Compare Santālī ārak'-te-ā chalak'a, house-into-I go, I shall go home. We can perhaps compare the tendency in some of the dialects now under consideration to distinguish the subject by means of pronominal prefixes before the verb. Compare Limbu khene ke-wā, thou thou-art, thou art. It should however be borne in mind that the use of prefixes is an old feature of Tibeto-Burman languages.

Another characteristic feature of the Munda verb is that the direct and indirect objects are incorporated in it by inserting pronominal infixes. Compare Santālī sim-dá okarā-y-ām ñam-ket'-ko-tiñ-a, hens where-thou foundest-them-mine? where did you find my hens? A similar tendency can be observed in some dialects of our group. Compare Khambu khodo-pikā, him-said, he said to him; Limbu pī-r-ang-nē, give me; hip-tam-me, beat him.

Higher numbers are counted in twenties in Dhīmāl, Yākhā, and Khambu. Thāmī and some Khambu dialects have adopted the Aryan numerals for higher numbers, and Rāi and Limbu make use of the Tibeto-Burman method of counting in tens. Compare Yākhā hi-bong-hichchi nga ibong, twenties-two and ten, fifty, and Santālī bar isi gāl, two twenties ten, fifty.

The personal pronouns of Mundā languages have three numbers. There are, moreover, double sets of the dual and plural of the first person. Compare Santālī in, I; alin, I and he; alan, I and thou; ala, I and they; abo, I and you. The Tibeto-Burman languages have no such complicated system of pronouns. The numerous forms found in them are due to the exigencies of etiquette, different forms being required in order to mark the differing degree of politeness shown towards the person addressed. Several Himalayan dialects, however, in this respect agree with the Mundā forms of speech.

Many of them are only known through the materials published by Hodgson. Compare Vāyu go, I; ang-chi, my and his; ung-chi, my and thy; ang-ki, my and their; ung-ki, my and your; Bāhing go, I; gō-si, I and thou; gō-sūkū, I and he; gōi, I and you; gō-kū, I and they, and similar forms in other dialects such as Thāksya, Rūngchhēnbūng, Nāchherēng, Wāling, Thūlung, Lōhōrōng, Lāmbichhōng, Bālāli, Sāngpāng, Dūmi, Khāling, Dungmāli, etc. Some of the dialects which fall within the scope of this Survey probably possess a similar system of pronominal forms. Our materials are not sufficient to judge about the matter with certainty. Compare however Limbu ān-chī, I and thou; ān-chī-gē, I and he; ānī, I and you; ānī-gē, I and they. In Khambu we find kei, we; i-mi, our; o-khi-pi, of us. Compare Bāhing gōi, I and you; i-ke, my and your; wa-ke, my and their, and so forth.

Hodgson has collected most of the complex pronominalized languages of Nepal under the head of Kirāntī, and it has become customary to distinguish those dialects as the Kirāntī group of Tibeto-Burman languages.

According to the same authority, the Kirānt country in the larger sense is subdivided into three different tracts, viz.:—

- 1. Wallo Kirānt or Hither Kirānt, inhabited by Yākhās, Limbus, Löhōröngs, and Chhingtangs.
- 2. Mājh Kirānt or Middle Kirānt, comprising Bontāwa, Rōdōng, Dungmāli, Khāling, Dūmi, Sāngpāng, Bālāli, Lāmbichhōng, Bāhing, Thūlung, Kūlung, Wāling, and Nāchherēng.
- 3. Pallo Kirant or further Kirant, inhabited by the Chourasyas.

Hodgson further states that Kirānt in this larger sense comprises the country of the Khambus, or Khambuwān, and the country of the Limbus, or Limbuwān. The former is situated between the Sun Kosi and the Arun, the latter between the Arun and the Singilela Range. The Yākhās and the Limbus are, however, he says, often alleged to be not Kirāntis. Mr. Gait, on the other hand, states that he has been informed by an educated Yākhā, that strictly speaking Kirāntī is the designation only of the Rāis, i.e., of the Jimdārs and the Yākhās. The name Kirānt should properly be written Kirāt. It has long ago been identified with the Kirātas of Sanskrit literature. It is not, however, of any importance to speculate on the history of the word. Suffice it to state that it is used in different senses by different authorities, and that the dialects of the so-called Kirāntī group are closely related to dialects spoken by tribes who have never claimed to be Kirānts. I do not, therefore, see any sufficient reason for retaining the-denomination Kirāntī in this Survey.

The dialects belonging to our group which will be dealt with in what follows are Dhīmāl, Thāmi, Limbu, Yākhā, Khambu, and Rāi. Some other Nepalese dialects such as Vāyu, Chēpāng, etc., will be added as a kind of appendix.

Dhīmāl and Thāmi are comparatively simple languages. The higher numbers in Dhīmāl are counted in twenties; compare nā bīsa, five twenties, hundred.

The person of the subject is distinguished by adding pronominal suffixes to the verb; thus, kā lē-āng-kā, I come-shall-I, I shall come; nā lē-āng-nā, thou come-wilt-thou, thou wilt come; kyēl lē-āng-kyēl, we come-shall-we, we shall come. In other respects Dhīmāl does not show any traces of the complicity characteristic of other dialects belonging to the group.

Dhīmāl has formerly been considered to belong to the Bodo group of Tibeto-Burman languages. Its vocabulary, and more especially the forms of the numerals and pronouns, however, show a much closer affinity to the Himalayan dialects, and the negative verb is formed by means of a prefix $m\tilde{a}$. When we remember the characteristic features drawn attention to above, it cannot therefore be any doubt that Dhīmāl must be separated from the Bodo group and dealt with in connexion with the pronominalized dialects of Nepal.

So far as we can judge from the scanty materials at our disposal, Thāmi is a dialect of the same description as Dhīmāl. The numerals above 'two' have been borrowed from Aryan languages, and we cannot therefore tell whether the higher numbers were originally counted in tens or in twenties. The conjugation of verbs, on the other hand, shows the same use of pronominal suffixes as in the case of Dhīmāl; thus, gai yā-ngā-du, I go-I-am, I go; ne rehu-nā-du, thee-by striking-thou-art, thou strikest.

Limbu is a dialect of a much more complex character. The higher numbers are, however, counted in tens as in Tibetan.

It has already been remarked that there are double forms of the dual and the plural of the first personal pronoun, viz:—un- $ch\bar{\imath}$, I and thou; an- $ch\bar{\imath}$ - $g\bar{e}$, I and he; $\bar{a}n\bar{\imath}$, I and you; $\bar{a}n\bar{\imath}$ - $g\bar{e}$, I and they. Of greater interest is, however, the use of short forms of the personal pronouns as prefixes; thus, $ang\bar{a}$ \bar{a} - $s\bar{a}$, I my-son, my son; $khen\bar{e}$ k'- $n\bar{u}$ - $s\bar{a}$, thou thy-younger-brother, thy younger brother; $kh\bar{u}n\bar{e}$ $k\bar{u}$ - $s\bar{a}$, he his-son, his son. These prefixes are extensively used, and they also occur before verbs, in order to distinguish the person of the subject and the object. Thus, \bar{a} -k'-hip, me thou strikest; $p\bar{a}p$ $g\bar{a}$ -chogu, sin I-did, I sinned; $kh\bar{u}n$ - $chh\bar{\imath}$ $m\bar{e}$ - $v\bar{a}$, they they-are, they are.

In this extensive use of pronominal prefixes Limbu agrees with Bara, and still more with the Kuki-Chin languages. Compare Bara āng-ni ā-fā, me-of my-father, my father; nang-ni nam-fā, thee-of thy-father, thy father; bī-ni bī-fā, him-of his-father, his father; Lushēi kei-ma ka-pa, I my-father, my father; kei-ma ka-ni, I my-being, I am. In this connexion we can also note that the plural suffix in the pronouns 'I' and 'thou' is ni in Limbu and in Lushēi.

It will, accordingly, be seen that Limbu forms another link in the chain connecting Tibetan and the Himalayan dialects with the Tibeto-Burman languages of Assam and Burma.

It is not only pronominal prefixes that are employed by Limbu. When the subject of a verb is of the first person, it is often indicated by suffixing ang, an abbreviated form of the pronoun angā, I. Thus, pēg-ang, went-I, I went. This ang must be compared with the suffix ngā in Thāmi. It is also used to indicate the object; thus, hip-t-ang, he struck me; pī-r-ang-nē, give me.

Yākhā is in many respects closely related to Limbu, as will already be apparent from a comparison of the numerals and pronouns in the list of words on pp. 408 and ff. Higher numbers are counted in twenties. The dialect possesses a set of pronominal prefixes. It does not, however, so commonly add them before a governing noun in order to repeat the governed genitive, as does Limbu, though we find forms such as u- $g\bar{a}$ i- $p\bar{a}$, him-of his-father, his father. The verb does not regularly differ for person. The suffix $ng\bar{a}$ is, however, sometimes inserted between the base and an auxiliary, when the subject is of the first person singular; thus, khem-me- $ng\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{a}$, going-I-am, I go, and it is

probable that better materials would show that Yākhā in reality agrees much more closely with Limbu than the tests available lead us to infer.

Khambu is the name of a tribe whose members speak several closely connected dialects. The higher numbers were formerly counted in twenties, but Aryan loan-words have now begun to be substituted. Several Khambu dialects possess dual forms of the personal pronouns and double sets of the dual and plural of the first person, one including and the other excluding the person addressed. The personal pronouns have short forms which are used as pronominal prefixes, as in Limbu and Yākhā.

Some Khambu dialects make use of pronominal suffixes in order to distinguish the person of the subject in verbs. There is also a tendency to add pronouns before the verb in order to indicate the object; thus, $khodo-pik\bar{a}$, him-said, he said to him.

Some Khambu dialects present a very complicated system of verbal forms, and it is just possible that further materials would show the same to be the case with all, or at least, most of them.

Specimens have been forwarded for the purposes of this Survey of a dialect called Rāi. It is probably the language spoken by the Jimdārs of Nepal. It closely corresponds to Hodgson's Dūmi.

Higher numbers are counted in tens.

According to Hodgson's Dūmi vocabulary, the personal pronouns have a dual as well as a plural, and there are both inclusive and exclusive forms of the dual and plural of the first person. Short forms of the personal pronouns are used as pronominal prefixes. The prefix \bar{a} , thy, is also used before verbs in order to indicate that the subject is of the second person; thus, \bar{a} -mu, madest. Compare Limbu.

The person of the subject is not regularly distinguished in the verb. In addition to the prefix \bar{a} in the second person we sometimes find a suffix nga in the first; thus, $mu-nga-t\bar{a}$, I am doing.

The remaining dialects of the group are only known from the materials published by Hodgson. The Vāyu dialect is a typical language of the complex type, and it will be described at some length. Other Nepalese languages, such as Bhrāmu, Chēpāng, Kusūnda, and Thāksya, are too unsatisfactorily known to be dealt with in detail. They have all been much influenced by Aryan tongues.

It will be seen that the dialects belonging to this group all have the tendency to distinguish the person of the subject, at least if the subject is of the first person. In that case a suffix $ng\bar{a}$ is usually added or inserted between the base and an auxiliary. In Dhīmāl and Thāmi we find a similar suffix $n\bar{a}$ in the second person. These two suffixes, $ng\bar{a}$ for the first and $n\bar{a}$ for the second person, will meet us again in the western group. Their origin is evident; they are simply the shortest forms of the personal pronouns of the two first persons.

In Limbu, Yākhā, Khambu, and Rāi we find an extensive use made of pronominal prefixes, just as is the case in several Tibeto-Burman dialects of Assam and Further India.

The position of our group can accordingly be defined as intermediate between Tibetan and the non-pronominalized Himalayan dialects on one side and the pronominalized languages of North Almora, Kanawar and neighbourhood as well as a series of Tibeto-Burman forms of speech such as Bard, the Kuki-Chin languages, etc., on the other.

DHĪMĀL.

The Dhīmāl dialect is spoken by a small tribe in the Darjeeling Terai. No estimates of the number of speakers have been forwarded for the purposes of this Survey. At the last Census of 1901 the figures were as follows:—

BENGAL I	PRESIDE	NCT-											
Darj	eeling		•	•	•	•	٠	•	٠	•		•	607
Assan													
										To	TAL	•	611

A full vocabulary and a grammatical sketch of the dialect have been published by Hodgson. No new materials have been forthcoming for the purposes of this Survey, and the remarks on Dhīmāl which follow are therefore entirely based on the materials collected by Hodgson. The same is the case with the list of Standard Words and Phrases on pp. 408 and ff.

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Article.—There is no article. The numeral e, one, is used as an indefinite article, and definiteness is indicated by means of demonstrative pronouns.

Nouns.—Gender.—Gender is indicated by using different words or by prefixing dānkhā, dhāngāi, male; mahani, bhundi, female, etc. Thus, kē, husband; bē, wife: wā-val, man; bē-val, woman: wā-jan, boy; bē-jan, girl: dānkhā khīā, male dog; mahani khīā, bitch: dhāngāi kia, cock; bhūndi kia, hen.

Number.—The plural is not marked when it appears from the context. The usual plural suffix is galai; thus, chan galai, children.

Case.—The subject of intransitive verbs and the object are not distinguished by any suffix. The subject of transitive verbs is usually put in the case of the agent, which is formed by adding the suffix dong. The dative, which is sometimes also used as an accusative, is formed by adding eng. The suffix of the ablative, which is also often used to denote the agent, is sho; that of the genitive ko, and that of the locative $t\bar{a}$. Thus, $\bar{\imath}$ dong $m\bar{a}$ - $\bar{\imath}$ $t\bar{a}$ $t\bar{$

Adjectives.—Adjectives usually precede, but sometimes also follow the noun they qualify; thus, člkā chan-galai, good children.

The particle of comparison is nhā-dong, which is usually preceded by the compared noun in the genitive. Thus, ō-kō nhā-dong dhāngā, him than tall, taller: sogiming-ko

nhā-dong dhāngā, all than tall, tallest; pīa nhā-dong õyhā gāndi hi, cow than horse fat is, the horse is fatter than the cow. Dong can be dropped; thus, sogiming nhā itā kalam rhinka, all than this pen long, this pen is the longest of all.

Numerals.—The first numerals are given in the list of words. They precede the noun they qualify. They are often followed by the suffix long, which does not appear to add anything to the meaning; thus, \bar{e} -long $d\bar{z}ang$ or e- $d\bar{z}ang$, one man.

Pronouns.—The following are the personal pronouns:—

kā, I. , nā, thou. wäng-dong, by him. käng-dong, by me. nang-dong, by thee. këng, to me. nēng, to thee. wēng, to him. ō-kō, wān-ko, his. kāng-ko, my. nang-ko, thy. nyēl, you. \bar{u} -bal, they. kyēl, we. ning-dong, by you. ū-bal-dong, by them. king-dong, by us. ning-ëng, to you. ū-bal-ēng, to them. king-ëng, to us. king-ko, our. ning-ko, your. \bar{u} -bal-ko, their.

The demonstrative pronouns are $\bar{\imath}$, this; \bar{u} , that. There are besides fuller forms, vis., $\bar{\imath}$ -dong, and \bar{u} -dong for living beings, and $\bar{\imath}$ - $t\bar{a}$, \bar{u} - $t\bar{a}$, for things. The demonstrative pronouns are inflected like personal pronouns; thus, $\bar{\imath}$ -ko, or $y\bar{a}ng$ -ko, of this; $y\bar{e}ng$, to this; $y\bar{a}ng$ -sho, from this. The plural is $\bar{\imath}$ -bal, these; \bar{u} -bal, those.

Interrogative pronouns are hāshū, who? hai, what?

Verbs.—All verbs are inflected in exactly the same way. If the subject is of the first or second person, the personal pronouns are suffixed to the tense bases. Thus, $k\bar{a}\ had\bar{e}-khi-k\bar{a}$, I go; $n\bar{a}\ had\bar{e}-khi-n\bar{a}$, thou goest; $w\bar{a}\ had\bar{e}-khi$, he goes; $ky\bar{e}l\ had\bar{e}-khi-ky\bar{e}l$, we go; $ny\bar{e}l\ had\bar{e}-khi-ny\bar{e}l$, you go; \bar{u} -bal had \bar{e} -khi, they go.

The usual verb substantive is jeng-li, to be. The present is $j\bar{e}hi$, the past $hig\bar{a}-hi$, the future $j\bar{e}ng$, first person $k\bar{a}j\bar{e}n-k\bar{a}$, I shall be.

Hi means 'to be,' 'to exist'; thus, hāshū hi, who is there? kā hi-kā, I am; bē-jan nhā-dong wā-jan dhāngā hī, girl than boy tall is, the boy is taller than the girl.

Present time.—The base alone is sometimes used as a present; thus, nāni mhoikā-dinchā-tā hadē-kā, to-day jungle-to go-I, to-day I am going to the jungle.

The usual present tense is formed by suffixing khi, mhi, or nhi; thus, $k\bar{a}$ had \bar{e} -khi- $k\bar{a}$, I go; $k\bar{a}$ $d\bar{o}p$ -mhi- $k\bar{a}$, I speak.

A present definite can be formed by prefixing *ēlāng*, now, to this tense; thus, kā *ēlāng khāng-khi-kā*, I am wishing.

Past time.—The suffix of the past is hi; thus, nā hadē-hi-nā, thou wentest. We also find shorter forms such as nā hai-nā, thou wentest; mā hai-kā, I did not go.

An imperfect is formed by prefixing lāmpāng, formerly, to the present; thus, kā lāmpāng khāng-khi-kā, I was wishing.

Future.—The suffix of the future is $\bar{a}ng$, which sometimes becomes $\bar{a}n$ before the suffix $k\bar{a}$ of the first person. The initial \bar{a} is sometimes dropped after vowels. Thus, $k\bar{a}$ chāng-ka, instead of chā-āng-kā, I shall eat; $k\bar{a}$ hadē-āng-kā, or kā hān-kā, I shall go; nā hadē-āng-nī, or, nā hāng-nā, thou wilt go.

Imperative.—The simple base without any suffix is used as an imperative; thus, cha eat; mā lē, don't come.

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Verbal nouns and participles.—The usual verbal noun is formed by adding li; thus, hadē-li, to go, in order to go. Another verbal noun is formed by adding kā; thus, pā-kā-konāng, on account of doing, because he did. Such forms are commonly used as relative participles; thus, dāng-hai-nēn-chā-kā khīā, beating-finding-eating dog, a beaten dog; dōp-kā kothā, spoken words.

An adverbial participle is formed by adding katang; thus, len-ka-tang len-ka-tang hade-khi, he goes laughing.

A conjunctive participle is formed by adding teng; thus, hade-teng, having gone.

Passive voice.—There is no passive voice. A kind of passive can however be expressed by adding the verbs $n\bar{e}n$, to find, and $ch\bar{a}$, to eat, to the base and conjugating throughout; thus, yolla-sho dang-hai $n\bar{e}n$ -chā-hi-hā, brother-from beating found-ate-I, I was beaten by my brother.

Negative particle.—The negative particle is a prefixed mā; thus, kā mā khāng-khi-kā, I do not wish; kā mā hān-kā, I am not going; mā hodē, don't go.

Order of words.—The usual order of words is subject, object, verb.

For further details the student is referred to the works quoted above under the head of authorities and to the list of Standard Words and Phrases on pp. 408 and ff. The latter has been compiled from Hodgson's grammar and vocabulary.

THĀMI.

The Thamis have formerly been considered to speak the same dialect as the Sunwars. During the preparatory operations of this Survey the two dialects were confounded in Darjeeling, and separate returns were only made from Sikkim. The number of speakers in that district was estimated at 100. At the last Census of 1901, Sunwar and Thami were classed together in Assam. The Thami figures for other districts were as follows:—

Bengal Presidency											_	
Jalpaiguri					•		•	•	•	•	9	
Darjeeling									•		264	
Chittagong											6	
Sikkim .		•									32	
VIA	•	•	-	-	-							
									To	tal I	Bengal	5
SOMBAT PRESIDENCY		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•
								•	GRAND	Тот	AL	. 8
												=

It will be seen that the number of speakers outside Nepal is small. It is therefore no wonder that it has been impossible to get more than an incomplete list of words for the purposes of this Survey. The list is not sufficient for giving a detailed description of the principal features of Thāmi grammar. It shows, however, that Thāmi is quite distinct from Sunwār. It is much influenced by Aryan dialects, and has adopted Aryan numerals above 'two.' On the whole, however, it seems to be a dialect of the same kind as Dhīmāl, Yākhā, Limbu, etc.

The remarks on the Thāmi dialect which follow are entirely based on the list mentioned above, which has been forwarded from Darjeeling.

Nouns.—The prefixes chi in chi- $ng\bar{a}$, nose; chi-le, tongue; $ch\bar{a}$ in $ch\bar{a}$ - $l\bar{a}$, moon; \bar{a} in \bar{u} -go, mouth; u- $m\bar{a}$, wife; \bar{u} -ni, sun, do not appear to add anything to the meaning. The prefix $ch\bar{a}$ in $ch\bar{a}$ - $l\bar{a}$ corresponds to the z in Tibetan zla-ma, moon. Similarly chi-le, tongue, should be compared with Tibetan lche, Sharpa che-lak.

Gender.—The male gender can be indicated by adding qualifying words such as pāpā, boke, dārhe, etc.; thus, pāpā syā, bull; boke churi, a he goat; dārhe ārki, a male deer. Pāpā should be compared with Pahrī bābā which is used in the same way. The female gender can, similarly, be distinguished by adding māmā, mā, or mi; thus, māmā syā, cow; kuchu-mā and kuchu-mi, bitch. In other cases the gender is distinguished by using different words, or else it is left unmarked.

Number.—There are two numbers, the singular and the plural. The plural can be distinguished by adding suffixes such as haru and $p\bar{a}li$; thus, \bar{a} - $p\bar{a}$ haru, fathers; chāmai $p\bar{a}li$, daughters.

Case.—The subject of intransitive verbs and the object are not distinguished by means of any suffix. The object can, however, be put in the dative, which is formed by adding one of the suffixes kai or lāi; thus, to-ko chā-kai rehunu, his son beat, I have beaten his son.

The subject of transitive verbs is put in the case of the agent, which is also used as an instrumental. It is formed by adding i or e; thus, dhā-i syā-mishā jahu-du, himby cows-buffaloes grazes, he is grazing cattle; to-kai shāk-pa-e chhiho, him ropes-with hind.

THÂMI. 281

An ablative is formed by adding dekhin or ining, ini; thus, dokane dekhin, from a shopkeeper; kā'-ining, here-from; kuta-ini, from whom?

The suffix of the genitive is ko; compare Sunwar $k\bar{a}$, and the suffix gu which forms relative participles in Newari and Pahri; thus, $n\bar{a}ng$ -ko $ap\bar{a}$ -ko nim-te, thy father's house-in.

The suffix of the locative and terminative is te; thus, nim-te, in the house; lukushā-te, upon his back. This suffix is also contained in postpositions such as pole-te, under; hābi-te, before; libi-te, behind.

Adjectives.—Adjectives precede the noun they qualify; thus, u-bha ghorā, the white horse; āprā chāmai-chā-pāli, good women. The particle of comparison is the Aryan bhandā as in Gurung, Yākhā, etc; thus, dhā-ko būbū to-ko humi bhandā aglo hoddu, his brother his sister than tall is, his brother is taller than his sister.

Pronouns.—The following are the personal pronouns:—

gaı, I.	nā, thou.	dhā, he.
ge, by me.	ne, nai, nāya, by thee.	dhā-i, by him.
gai-ko, my.	nān-ko, thy.	dhā-ko, his.
ai-mi, ni, we.	nāng, ningwai, you.	dhā-bang, dhā-mā-pāli, they.
ni, by us.	nai, by you.	dhā-bang-e, by them.
mi-ko, our.	nāng-ko, your.	ta-bang-ko, their.

Ta-bang-ko, their, is perhaps the genitive plural of the demonstrative pronoun to, that. It seems however probable that dh and t are interchangeable as in other connected forms of speech. Moreover, the handwriting of the original list is so indistinct that it is often impossible to distinguish between o and a. The plural forms of the second person properly belong to the singular.

Demonstrative pronouns are kā, this; w, and to, that.

Interrogative pronouns are su, who? $h\bar{a}$ - $r\bar{a}$, what? $h\bar{a}$ -ni, how much? how many? Kuta-(ini), whom (-from), is probably Aryan.

Verbs.—The verb substantive is apparently du; compare Newari and Pahri. Gai hok-ingā-du, I am, seems to mean 'I sitting am.' The forms $th\bar{a}$, is; thiyo, was, are probably Aryan.

Finite verb.—The verb substantive plays a considerable rôle in the inflexion of finite verbs. There is apparently a strong tendency to distinguish the person of the subject by inserting pronominal suffixes between the base and the verb substantive, as is also the case in other Nepalese languages. In the first person singular a $ng\bar{a}$ is inserted; thus, hok- $ng\bar{a}$ -du, I am; hok- $ng\bar{a}$ -thiyo, I was. In $n\bar{a}$ hok- $ng\bar{a}$ -du, thou art, $ng\bar{a}$ is perhaps miswritten for $n\bar{a}$; compare $n\bar{a}$ hok- $n\bar{a}$ -du-thiyo, thou wast. In $y\bar{a}$ -ng- $ng\bar{a}$ ng, I went, ng is used instead of $ng\bar{a}$.

The suffix $n\bar{a}$ is often used in a similar way in the second person; thus, ne rehu-nā-du, thou strikest. This suffix is, however, also used in the first person; thus, gai hok-na-du, I shall be; gai thā-ng-nā-du, I may be.

In the plural we find i in the first, and mi in the second and third persons; thus, mi hok-i-du, we are; mingwai hod-mi-du thiyo, you were; to-bangai hod-mi-du thiyo, they were.

Present time.—The base alone is sometimes used as a present tense; thus, $th\bar{a}$, is; $nai \ rehi$, you strike. Usually, however, the copula du is added; thus, hod-du, he is, they are; $y\bar{a}$ -du, he goes; $r\bar{a}$ -du, he comes; rehu-du, he strikes, they strike. The suffixes mentioned above can be inserted before this du; thus, $y\bar{a}$ - $ng\bar{a}$ -du, I go; rehu- $n\bar{a}$ -du, thou strikest; $n\bar{a}ng \ hot$ - $n\bar{a}$ -du, you are; $ni \ hok$ -i-du, we are.

In the first person we also find a suffix nu; thus, $ge \ rehu-nu$, I strike. It is abbreviated to n before du; thus, $ge \ rehu-n-du$, I am striking.

In the second person we find a suffix $l\bar{a}$ added to duk, the fuller form of the copula du; thus, $n\bar{a}ng$ $y\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{a}$ -duk- $l\bar{a}$, thou goest.

Re-sā in ni re-sā, we strike, is an ordinary verbal noun; see below.

Past time.—The various forms used in the function of finite tenses are properly verbal nouns. The literal meaning of gai hok-ngā-du, I am, is 'my sitting-my-being.' Such forms can of course occasionally also be used in the past; thus, ge rehu-nu, I have beaten; ge rehu-n-du, I had beaten. A real past can be formed by adding thiyo, was; thus, gai hok-ngā-thiyo, my sitting-my-was, I was; to-bāngai hod-ni-du-thiyo, they were.

Another suffix of the past is ngāng; thus, gai yāng-ngāng, I went; nāng yā-ngāng, thou wentest; gai-kai ṛe-ngāng, me-to struck, I am struck.

A suffix $h\bar{a}n$ occurs in $th\bar{a}-h\bar{a}n$, was; $y\bar{a}-h\bar{a}n$, went; and $m\bar{a}ng$ is used in $n\bar{a}ya$ kinai-m $\bar{a}ng$, thou boughtest.

Future.—The present is also used as a future; thus, ge reu-nu, I shall beat. The suffix nā in gai thāng-nā-du, I may be; gai hok-nā-du, I shall be, is probably the suffix of a participle or verbal noun.

Imperative.—The imperative is apparently formed by adding one of the suffixes \bar{a} , $k\bar{a}$, $g\bar{a}$; ho, ko; thus, $y\bar{a}$ - \bar{a} , go; chiy \bar{a} , eat; ho- $k\bar{a}$, sit; thiu- $g\bar{a}$, stand; re-ho, beat; chhi-ho, bind; pi-ko, give. The initial k and g of some of these suffixes perhaps belongs to the base.

Piyang, give, probably contains the pronominal suffix of the first person and means 'give me.'

Verbal nouns and participles.—A verbal noun is formed by adding the suffix sā; thus, thā-sā, to be; gai-kai re-sā chāhi-du, me-to beating due-is, I shall be beaten.

Another verbal noun is formed by adding $mu-n\bar{a}$; thus, $re-mu-n\bar{a}$, to strike. It contains the suffix $n\bar{a}$ which is used with the meaning of a participle or verbal noun in rehu-na, beating.

The suffix sā is probably identical with chhā in yen-chhā, going. Compare Sunwār chhā, Purik chā, etc.

Conjunctive participles are apparently formed by adding $t\bar{a}$ -le or to-le; thus, thatie, being; jetlong-ta-le, having been; jetlong-ta-le, having beaten.

Negative Particle.—The negative particle is a prefixed $m\bar{a}$; thus, $m\bar{a}$ -th \bar{a} , notis, no.

For further details the student is referred to the list of words on pp. 408 and ff. It should be borne in mind that the value of the preceding remarks entirely depends on the correctness of the various forms contained in the list.

LIMBU.

The Limbus are one of the principal tribes of Eastern Nepal. Their home is to the east of the Yākhās, and to the south-east of the Khambus. They rank next to the Khambus and above the Yākhās.

The Limbus call themselves Yāk-thūng-bā, and according to Major Senior¹ they state that they and the Rāis were once one people. Their history is stated to be written in a book called *Bhongsoli*, i.e., Vamśāvali, of which copies are kept in some of the most ancient families. Such copies, when found by the Gurkhas, are always burnt, and the keeping of them is strictly forbidden.

According to Sir Herbert Risley—

'The name Limbu, or Das Limbu, from the ten sub-tribes (really thirteen) into which they are supposed to be divided, is used only by outsiders. Tibetans have no special name for the Limbus; they call all the tribes of the Indian side of the Himalays by the general name Monpa or dwellers in the ravines. The Lepchas and Bhotias or Tibetans settled in Bhotan, Sikkim, and Nepal speak of the Limbus as Tsong, because the five thums or sub-tribes included in the class known as Lhasa-gotra emigrated to Eastern Nepal from the district of Tsang in Tibet. Lepchas call them Chang, which may be a corruption of Tsong. By other members of the Kiránti group they are addressed by the honorist title of Subah or Susiah, a chief.

The Limbus, according to Dr. Campbell, "form a large portion of the inhabitants in the mountainous country lying between the Dud-Kosi and the Kanki rivers in Nepal, and are found in smaller numbers eastwards to the Mechi river, which forms the boundary of Nepal and Sikkim. In still fewer numbers they exist within the Sikkim territory, as far east as the Tista river, beyond which they rarely settle. In Bhutan they are unknown except as strangers." Hodgson locates them between the Arun Kosi and the Mechi, the Singilela ridge being their boundary on the east. The Limbus themselves claim to have held from time immemorial the Tamba Khola valley on the upper waters of the Tamba Kosi river: and the fact that one of their sub-tribes bears the name Tambakhola suggests that this valley may have been one of their early settlements. They have also a tradition that five out of their thirteen sub-tribes came from Lhasa, while five others came from Benares. The former group is called the Lhasa-gotra, and the latter the Kási-gotra; but the term gotra has in this case no bearing on marriage. All that can safely be said is that the Limbus are the oldest recorded population of the country between the Tamra Kosi and the Mechi, and their flat features, slightly oblique eyes, 'gellow complexion, and beardlessness may perhaps afford grounds for believing them to be the descendants of early Tibetan settlers in Nepal. They appear to have mixed little with the Hindus, but much with the Lepchas, who of late years have migrated in large numbers from Sikkim to the west.'

We have no information about the number of speakers of Limbu in Nepal. Their number of speakers.

Number of speakers.

number in Darjeeling and Sikkim has been estimated for the purposes of this Survey as follows:—

Darjeeling Sikkim States							
					Total	L	24,045

At the last Census of 1901 speakers were returned from Darjeeling and Sikkim, and also from Jalpaiguri and Purnea in the Bengal Presidency, and from Assam. The figures were as follows:—

								Car	ried ov	er	20.269
Sikkim .	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	5,910	
Darjeeling										14,359	

² I take this opportunity of acknowledging the most valuable assistance which has been rendered me in the preparation of the notes which follow by Major H. A. E. Senior, LS.C. He has sent me an excellent version of the Parable, tables of the conjugation of the Limbu verb, and numerous important corrections to the sketch of Limbu grammar which I had prepared before seeing his notes. The ensuing pages are simport entirely based on these materials.

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				Bro	nght:	forwar	d	20,269	
Jalpaiguri Purnea	•				•		1,723 43		
					al Ben am .	gal Pr	esidency		22,035 1,165
						GR	AND TOTAL		23,200

The Limbus formerly possessed an alphabet of their own. A table of its characters was compiled by Lieutenant-General Mainwaring and published by Mr. A. Campbell in the Bengal Journal for 1855. The Limbu character is no longer in use, and no specimen has been forwarded in it.

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Hodgson, B. H.,—On the Aborigines of the Sub-Himzlayas. Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. xvi, Part ii, 1847, pp. 1235 and ff. Reprinted in Selections from the Records of the Government of Bengal, No. xxvii, Calcutta, 1857, pp. 126 and ff, and under the title On the Aborigines of the Himalaya, in Hodgson's Essays on the Languages, Literature, and Religion of Nepal and Tibet. London, 1874, Part ii, pp. 29 and ff.

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Brings, J.,—Outlines of Indian Philology with a Map shewing the Distribution of Indian Languages.

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HURTER, W. W., —A Comparative Dictionary of the Languages of India and High Asia. London, 1868. Dalton, Edward Tuite,—Descriptive Ethnology of Bengal. Calcutta, 1872. Contains a Limbu vocabulary compiled from Campbell and Hodgson.

CAMPBELL, SIR GEORGE,—Specimens of Languages of India. Calcutta, 1874, pp. 151 and ff. Hooker, Sir J.,—Himalayan Journals. London, 1891, p. 95.

Hodgson was once occupied with a grammatical analysis of the Limbu dialect. His sketch of the language was not, however, finished. Major H. A. R. Senior has lately taken up the study of the language. A grammar and vocabulary from his hand is under publication, and will amply compensate for Hodgson's failure to finish his work.

Major Senior has learnt Limbu from a member of the Fēdopīā tribe, which according to him are of the Kāsī-Kōtar, while Sir Herbert Risley classes it under the head of Lhāsā Kōtar. To that latter Kōtar belong the Tamarkhōlēās and the Fāgūrāī, while the Pāntharēā and other tribes are of the Kāsī-Kōtar. A version of the Parable and a list of Standard Words and Phrases in Tamarkhōlēā Limbu have been kindly prepared for the purposes of this Survey by the Nepal Darbar. Another version of the Parable and another list in the Fāgūrāī dialect have been forwarded from Darjeeling. These materials will be referred to in the ensuing pages, though the remarks which follow are mainly based on the materials mentioned above on p. 283, for which I am indebted to the kindness of Major Senior.

Pronunciation.—Hard and soft consonants are often interchangeable; thus, chiā and jiā, which; kū-m-pā and kū-m-bā, his father.

Loften interchanges with r, commonly in such a way that l is used after consonants, r after vowels: thus. ō-rūp-lūp, fat; thik-lēō, one with; kū-m-pā-rēō, with his father; kū-m-pā-rē, by his father, but also kū-sā-lē, by his son.

Kh sometimes interchanges with h; thus, khūnē and hūnē, he. The h-forms are common in Tamarkhōlēā.

Ch, chh, and s interchange in the suffix chi of the dual and plural.

There are no proper tones in Limbu. The so-called abrupt tone is probably intended in spelling such as heh-mu, and hep-mu, in, in Fāgūrāī.

Articles.—There are no articles. The numeral thik, one, is sometimes used as an indefinite article; thus, $s\bar{e}\delta t\bar{e}$ thik, a servant. It is often preceded by lop; thus, lop-thik $p\bar{a}$, a father. Instead of lop-thik we also find la-thik. That latter form is used by dwellers near Tibet. $L\bar{o}ch\bar{a}$, a certain, is also used as an indefinite article; thus, $l\bar{o}ch\bar{a}$ $m\bar{a}na\bar{i}-l\bar{e}$, to a man.

Nouns.—Gender.—The natural gender is distinguished by using different words or by means of qualifying additions. Thus, $p\bar{a}$, father; $m\bar{a}$, mother: embechhā, man; menchhemā, woman: $ph\bar{u}$, elder brother; nennē, elder sister: $n\bar{u}s\bar{a}$, younger brother; $n\bar{u}s\bar{a}$ menchhemā, younger sister: $\bar{o}n$ yārimbā, a stallion; $\bar{o}n$ kū-m-mā, a mare: pit yārimbā, a bull: $p\bar{\iota}t$ -mā, or pit-kū-m-mā, a cow. The suffixes $k\bar{u}$ -m-bā, male; $k\bar{u}$ -m-mā, female, are only used to distinguish the gender of animals, and not in the case of human beings; thus, $pengva\bar{a}$ $k\bar{u}$ -m-bā, a male deer; $pengva\bar{a}$ $k\bar{u}$ -m-mā, a female deer.

Number.—There are three numbers, the singular, the dual, and the plural. The dual is usually distinguished by means of the same suffixes as the plural. In $n\bar{e}deng-n\bar{e}-m\bar{o}$, on the two cheeks, however, the suffix $n\bar{e}$ is not a plural suffix, but probably a shorter form of the numeral $ne-ch\bar{i}$, two.

The usual suffixes of the plural are $h\bar{a}$ and $s\bar{\imath}$, or after t, $ch\bar{\imath}$; thus, $p\bar{a}-h\bar{a}$, fathers; $s\bar{a}-s\bar{\imath}$, children; $p\bar{\imath}t-m\bar{a}-h\bar{a}$, cows; $p\bar{\imath}t-m\bar{a}-s\bar{\imath}$, cows (generic), female cattle, also used loosely as a plural; $p\bar{\imath}t-ch\bar{\imath}$, cows, cattle (whether male or female). Both suffixes are sometimes combined; thus, $\bar{o}n-h\bar{a}-s\bar{\imath}$, horses; $pa-h\bar{a}-s\bar{\imath}$, fathers, ancestors. Note $ph\bar{a}k\bar{a}$, i.e., $ph\bar{a}k-h\bar{a}$, pigs.

Case.—A vocative is formed by adding \bar{e} , before which a final vowel is sometimes dropped; thus, $a\text{-}m\text{-}b\text{-}\bar{e}$, O my father; $\bar{a}\text{-}s\bar{a}\text{-}\bar{e}$, O my son. Instead of \bar{e} we also find $r\bar{e}$; thus, $a\text{-}m\text{-}p\bar{a}\text{-}r\bar{e}$, O my father.

The subject and the object are usually indicated by means of pronominal suffixes added to the verb, and no suffix is therefore required after the nouns. Thus, $s\bar{a}$ necks $v\bar{a}yech\bar{i}$, two sons were; $s\bar{a}m\bar{a}-h\bar{a}$ $h\bar{a}-t\bar{u}-s\bar{i}$, his goods he divided among them; $k\bar{u}-m-b\bar{a}$ $m\bar{e}t\bar{u}$, his-father he-said-to-him, he said to his father.

Often, however, suffixes are added to the noun. A suffix $\bar{\imath}n$, or, after vowels, n, is often added to a noun which is used as the subject of intransitive verbs, as an object, and also as an indirect object; thus, $\bar{a}-s\bar{a}-n$ $s\bar{\imath}\bar{a}-b\bar{a}-n$, my-son was dying; $ph\bar{a}k$ $ch\bar{a}n-\bar{\imath}n$ $ch\bar{a}-m\bar{a}$, pigs' food to-eat; $k\bar{o}n$ $y\bar{a}mb\bar{o}k-\bar{\imath}n$ $ch\bar{o}g\bar{u}-b\bar{a}$, he has done this work; $k\bar{u}-s\bar{a}-n$ $n\bar{e}-s\bar{u}-ang$, his-son having-seen; $kh\bar{u}nch\bar{\imath}$ $ph\bar{a}k-\bar{\imath}n$ $m\bar{e}-m\bar{a}nd\bar{u}$, they finished eating the pig; $k\bar{o}n$ $y\bar{a}nm\bar{\imath}-n$ $sip\bar{a}h\bar{\imath}-m\bar{o}$ $ang\bar{a}$ $bhart\bar{\imath}$ $ch\bar{o}g\bar{u}ng-k\bar{o}-l\bar{o}-\bar{a}$, this man soldiers-among I-enlisted to-make-wish; $p\bar{a}-r\bar{e}$ $kh\bar{u}n-ch\bar{\imath}-\bar{\imath}n$ $h\bar{a}-t\bar{u}-s\bar{\imath}$, father-by them-to divided-to-them, the father divided among them. Instead of $\bar{\imath}n$ we also find en; thus, $\bar{o}r\bar{u}p-l\bar{u}p$ $k\bar{e}-l\bar{o}-ben$ $b\bar{o}h\bar{o}r-en$ $s\bar{e}-r\bar{e}-m\bar{e}$, fat being heifer kill; compare also $\bar{o}n-nin$, to a horse. The suffix $\bar{\imath}n$, etc., is probably only an emphasizing particle and has nothing to do with the distinction of case.

Another suffix $l\bar{e}$ or $r\bar{e}$ is sometimes used to denote the direct or indirect object. It should be compared with Tibetan la. Thus, $\bar{a}nchh\bar{u}$ -s\bar{a} menchhem\bar{a}-l\bar{e} k\bar{o}\bar{o}mech\bar{e} p\bar{e}chh\bar{i}

our-child woman to-see we-go, we go to see our daughter; $l\bar{o}-ch\bar{a}$ $m\bar{a}na\bar{i}-l\bar{e}$, to a man; $\bar{o}n-n\bar{i}-l\bar{e}$, to a horse. The same suffix is commonly used to denote the subject of transitive verbs; thus, $ph\bar{o}b\bar{a}-l\bar{e}$ $m\bar{e}t\bar{u}$, the-younger-by said-to-him; $p\bar{a}-r\bar{e}$ $h\bar{a}-t\bar{u}-s\bar{i}$, father-by divided-to-them, the father divided among them. Compare also $s\bar{i}k\bar{i}-h\bar{a}-r\bar{e}$ $kh\bar{e}khem-m\bar{e}$, ropes-with bind-him, where $r\bar{e}$ denotes the instrument. In forms such as $\bar{o}n-n\bar{i}-l\bar{e}$, to a horse, by a horse, $l\bar{e}$ is apparently added to another suffix $n\bar{i}$ or \bar{i} .

Forms such as $\bar{o}n-n\bar{i}-l\bar{e}$ can also be used as a kind of locative, meaning on the horse, etc. The usual suffix of the locative is, however, $y\bar{o}$ (\bar{o} , $\bar{e}\bar{o}$) or $m\bar{o}$; thus, $p\bar{a}ng-ph\bar{e}-y\bar{o}$ and $p\bar{a}ngph\bar{e}-\bar{o}$, in a country, into a country; $p\bar{a}r\bar{i}h\bar{a}-y\bar{o}$ and $p\bar{a}r\bar{i}h\bar{a}-m\bar{o}$, in, into, the field; $k\bar{u}$ -ningw \bar{a} - $m\bar{o}$, in his mind; k'-him- $m\bar{o}$, in thy house. Another form of the same suffix is apparently $r\bar{o}$; thus, $songw\bar{a}r\bar{o}$ - $r\bar{o}$ -($n\bar{u}$), fields-in (-from). Compare the terminative suffix of Tibetan. A compound suffix of the locative is khep- $m\bar{o}$ or hep- $m\bar{o}$, which sometimes also occur as kheh- $y\bar{o}$, $kh\bar{e}y\bar{o}$, heh- $y\bar{o}$, $h\bar{e}y\bar{o}$, respectively; thus, $l\bar{a}j\bar{i}$ -hep- $m\bar{o}$, in a country.

The suffix of the ablative is $n\bar{u}$; thus, $k\bar{o}y\bar{o}-n\bar{u}$, here-from; $\bar{o}n-\bar{e}\bar{o}-n\bar{u}$, from on a horse; $songw\bar{a}r\bar{o}-m\bar{o}-n\bar{u}$, from in the fields; $w\bar{o}dump\bar{o}kw\bar{a}-\bar{o}-n\bar{u}$, from the well, and so forth.

The genitive is expressed by adding pronominal prefixes to the governing noun; thus, k'-m- $b\bar{a}$ $k\bar{u}$ -him- $m\bar{o}$, thy-father his-house-in, in thy father's house. The governed word is often followed by the suffix $r\bar{e}$ or $l\bar{e}$; thus, $l\bar{o}ch\bar{a}$ $m\bar{a}na\bar{\imath}$ - $l\bar{e}$ $k\bar{u}$ - $s\bar{a}$, one manto his sons; $\bar{o}m$ - $\bar{\imath}$ - $l\bar{e}$ $k\bar{u}$ - $gadh\bar{\imath}$, horse-to its-saddle, the horse's saddle; sing- $n\bar{\imath}$ - $l\bar{e}$ $k\bar{u}$ -sig- $\bar{e}\bar{o}$, tree-to its-bottom-at, under the tree. The usual form of this suffix in the genitive is, however, len, ren; thus, $ph\bar{a}k$ - $h\bar{a}$ -ren k' \bar{u} -n-tangben, pigs-of their-master.

The suffix $l\bar{e}$, $r\bar{e}$ is connected with the postposition $l\bar{e}\bar{o}$, $r\bar{e}\bar{o}$; thus, thik- $l\bar{e}\bar{o}$, onewith; $k\bar{u}$ -m- $p\bar{a}$ - $r\bar{e}\bar{o}$, his-father-with; compare also $r\bar{o}$ in a-m- $p\bar{a}$ - $r\bar{o}$ $t\bar{a}chek$ - $t\bar{u}$ -ng, I will say to my father, and the suffix $r\bar{o}$ mentioned under the head of locative, above. Other postpositions are $lag\bar{i}$, for the sake of; $d\bar{u}m\bar{a}$, before; $t\bar{o}gang$ and $t\bar{o}g\bar{e}\bar{o}$, before (time and place); $\bar{e}gang$, behind; $b\bar{e}sang$ and $b\bar{e}s\bar{e}\bar{o}$, near, etc. The final ang in some of these forms is perhaps a suffix of the locative.

Adjectives.—Adjectives are very commonly followed by the suffix $p\bar{a}$, feminine $m\bar{a}$; thus, $n\bar{o}$ - $b\bar{a}$, feminine $n\bar{o}$ - $m\bar{a}$, good; $k\bar{u}$ - $s\bar{a}$ $t\bar{u}m$ - $b\bar{a}$, his eldest son. By prefixing $k\bar{e}$ such adjectives are turned into nouns; thus, $k\bar{e}$ - $n\bar{o}$ - $b\bar{a}$ and $k\bar{e}$ - $n\bar{o}$ - $m\bar{a}$, the good one.

Adjectives sometimes precede and sometimes follow the noun they qualify. They usually precede it in the plural. They can be inflected for number; thus, $nechh\bar{i}$ $n\bar{o}-b\bar{a}-b\bar{a}$ (or $n\bar{o}-b\bar{a}$) $man\bar{e}-h\bar{a}$, two good men.

The particle of comparison is $n\bar{u}$ - $l\bar{e}$, i.e., a fuller form of the ablative suffix $n\bar{u}$; thus, kōn $n\bar{u}$ - $l\bar{e}$ $n\bar{a}khen$ (chhenà) $n\bar{o}$ - $b\bar{a}$, this from that (more) good, this is better than that; khel-len $k\bar{u}$ - $n\bar{u}$ - $s\bar{a}$ -embechhā $k\bar{u}$ - $n\bar{u}$ - $s\bar{a}$ -emchhemā $n\bar{u}$ - $l\bar{e}$ yōmmā $w\bar{a}$, him-of hisbrother his-sister from tall is; $k\bar{a}k$ $n\bar{u}$ - $l\bar{e}$ angā $n\bar{o}$ - $b\bar{a}$, all from I good, I am best of all.

The Khas particle bhandā is sometimes used instead of nūlē; thus, kāk bhandā nō-bā nō-bā tēt-hā, all from good good clothes, the best clothes.

Numerals.—The first numerals are given in the list of words. Addition is effected by placing the smaller after the higher numeral. Multiplication, on the other hand, is indicated by prefixing the multiplier. Thus, angā li-gip nechī tong vōā. I fortv-two

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reached, I am forty-two years old; thibong thik, ten one, eleven; sūm-bong, three-ten, thirty; li-gip, four-ten, forty; tū-kip, sixty; nū-gip, seventy; ye-kip, eighty; mānā thik li-gip nū-sī, one hundred and forty-seven. Note thī-kip, hundred; kip-nechī, two hundred; kip-līsī, four hundred; thībong kip, or pātī thik, thousand; nībong kip, or pātī nechī, two thousand. It will be seen that a suffixed kip usually means 'ten,' but a prefixed kip usually 'hundred.'

The numerals sometimes precede and sometimes follow the word they qualify.

There are no ordinal numbers. The Aryan $pahil\bar{o}$, first; $d\bar{o}sr\bar{o}$, second, etc., are used, and, on the whole, the old Limbu numerals are gradually being replaced by Aryan forms.

Multiplicatives are formed by adding leng or reng to the cardinals; thus, sūm-leng, three times; nā-reng, five times. It will be seen that the final sī, chī, of the cardinals is dropped before leng. At the same time older forms are sometimes restored; thus, ye-chī, eight, but yet-leng, eight times. Note pāilē-thik-leng and thik-leng, once; nī-reng, twice; thī-bong nechī leng, twelve times, etc.

Zero is expressed by hop (compare hop-mā, to be absent), or, more generally, by the Aryan sun or sunny $\tilde{\epsilon}$.

Instances of fractional numbers are $k\bar{u}$ -khelek or $k\bar{u}$ -phereng, one half; $k\bar{u}$ -khelek ang $k\bar{u}$ -khelek, or $k\bar{u}$ -khelek $k\bar{\imath}$ lë $k\bar{u}$ -khelek, or $k\bar{u}$ -s $\bar{\imath}$ kw \bar{a} , one fourth; $k\bar{u}$ -s $\bar{\imath}$ kw \bar{a} s $\bar{\imath}$ ms $\bar{\imath}$, three fourths; lop-thik ang $k\bar{u}$ -s $\bar{\imath}$ kw \bar{a} thik, one and one fourth; th $\bar{\imath}$ bong lok-khe $\bar{\imath}$ y \bar{a} (or lok-y \bar{a}) lok-s $\bar{\imath}$ m-s $\bar{\imath}$, three tenths, and so forth.

Pronouns.—The following are the personal pronouns:—

angā, I. $khen\bar{e}$, thou. $kh\bar{u}n\bar{e}$, he. \bar{a} -, my. k^2 -, thy. $k\bar{u}$ -, his.

ān-chī, I and thou. khen-chī, you two. khūn-chī, they two, they.

ān-chī-gē, I and he.

ānī, I and you. khenī, you.

 $\bar{a}n\bar{i}-g\bar{e}$, I and they.

The usual case suffixes can be added; thus, $ang\bar{a}-\bar{\imath}n$, of me; $ang\bar{a}-\hat{o}$, in me, mine; $khen\bar{e}-\bar{\imath}n$, of thee; $khen\bar{\imath}-\bar{\imath}n$, of you; $kh\bar{u}n\bar{e}-\bar{\imath}n$, of him; $kh\bar{u}nch\bar{\imath}-\bar{\imath}n$, to them, etc. There are several other forms of the third person. $Kh\bar{u}n\bar{e}$ is only used of persons absent; $n\bar{a}$ denotes a person present, but a little farther off; $n\bar{a}-khen$ is used of persons present; khen often has a somewhat contemptuous meaning. It often takes the form of ken, just as $k\bar{u}n\bar{e}$ occurs in addition to $kh\bar{u}n\bar{e}$. Note forms such as $khell\bar{e}$, to him, by him; khellen, his, etc.

The dual and the plural of the third person have the same form. The suffix chi is probably an old dual-suffix. It is, however, identical with the plural suffix sī. Nī is a plural suffix.

The short forms \bar{a} -, my; k'-, thy; $k\bar{u}$ -, his, her, its, are used as pronominal prefixes. Thus, \bar{a} -s \bar{a} , my son; k'-s \bar{a} , thy son; $k\bar{u}$ -s \bar{a} , his son; ang \bar{a} \bar{a} -lag \bar{i} , I my-sake-for, for my sake; $kh\bar{u}n\bar{e}$ $k\bar{u}$ -lag \bar{i} , for his sake. A nasal is often inserted before a following mute consonant. Thus, $k\bar{u}$ -n-g $\bar{u}v\bar{a}$, his mother's brother; $ph\bar{a}k$ -h \bar{a} -ren $k\bar{u}$ -n-tangben, swine-of their master; \bar{u} -n-d \bar{i} ng-b \bar{a} -h \bar{a} , my friends; a-m-p \bar{a} and a-m-b \bar{a} , my father; $k\bar{u}$ -m-bhang \bar{a} , his father's younger brother.

It will be seen that the personal pronoun which we translate as a possessive is often put in the nominative before such prefixes. The prefixes themselves in reality replace

the genitive suffix. Limbu in this respect not only agrees with other Nepal languages such as Khambu and Yākhā; but also with an important group of Tibeto-Burman languages in Further India, viz., the so-called Kuki-Chin group.

The pronominal prefixes are also, as is likewise the case in the Kuki-Chin languages, used in connexion with verbs, in order to denote the subject, and partly also the object. See the remarks under the head of verbs below.

The pronouns of the third person are also used as demonstrative pronouns; thus, khen, that. The nearer demonstrative is $k\bar{o}n$, this.

Interrogative pronouns are $\bar{e}n$, $h\bar{a}$, and $\bar{a}t\bar{\imath}$, who? $th\bar{e}$ and hen, what? $\bar{a}khen$, howmuch? $\bar{a}tang$, where, from what place? $\bar{a}tis-m\bar{a}$, of what kind? Thus, $h\bar{a}-p\bar{e}$, who is it? $k'-thar\ th\bar{e}-b\bar{e}$, which is thy clan? $tong\ \bar{a}khen\ tong-b\bar{e}\ khen\bar{e}\ k'-y\bar{o}$, years how-many years thou thou-reachedest? how old are you? $\bar{a}tism\bar{a}\ S\bar{o}demb\bar{a}\ n\bar{e}-b\bar{e}$, what kind of Södembā are you?

According to Major Senior, there is sometimes a slight difference of dialect. Thus Fēdopīā $\bar{e}n$ $n\bar{e}$ - $g\bar{o}$, Fāgūrāī and Tamarkhōlēā $h\bar{a}$ $n\bar{e}$ - $g\bar{o}$, Pāntharēā $h\bar{a}$ $n\bar{e}$ - $b\bar{e}$, who are you? Fēdopīā k'-ming hen $n\bar{e}$ - $g\bar{o}$, Tamarkhōlēā $khen\bar{e}$ k'ming $th\bar{e}$ - $g\bar{o}$, Pāntharēā $khen\bar{e}$ k'ming $th\bar{e}$ -(n)- $b\bar{e}$, what is your name? and so on. Forms such as $th\bar{e}$, what? are, however, understood by all Limbus.

Indefinite pronouns are formed by adding ang to interrogatives; thus, $th\bar{e}$ -ang, anything; $\bar{a}t\bar{i}$ - $l\bar{e}$ -ang, by anyone. Note also $l\bar{o}ch\bar{a}$, a certain.

There are no indigenous relative pronouns. Participles are used instead; thus, $\bar{b}r\bar{u}p$ - $l\bar{u}p$ $k\bar{e}$ - $l\bar{o}$ -ben $b\bar{o}h\bar{o}r$ -en phete- $m\bar{e}$, fat the-being-one heifer bring. Aryan loan-words are, however, also used, and relative clauses are then formed as in Aryan languages; thus, $k\bar{o}n$ $teph\bar{u}n$ $ch\bar{u}\bar{a}$ \bar{a} - $l\bar{o}k$ $t\bar{e}k\bar{a}$ - \bar{a} , this property which my-share I-get, the share of the property which I shall get; $b\bar{o}h\bar{o}r$ -en $ch\bar{u}\bar{a}$ $khen\bar{e}$ k'-hing- $kh\bar{u}$, the-heifer which thou thou-caredest-for-it, the heifer which you cared for; $jast\bar{o}$ $k\bar{u}$ - $s\bar{a}$ $ch\bar{u}k$ -ben $it\bar{u}$ $b\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{e}$ - $b\bar{a}$, as hisson youngest said had, as his youngest son had said.

Verbs.—The Limbu verb presents a complicated picture, the subject and the object being often indicated by means of pronominal prefixes and suffixes added to the verb. In other respects the verb is, as is the case in most Tibeto-Burman languages, essentially a noun. Thus, the suffix $s\bar{s}$ or $ch\bar{s}$, which is identical with the suffix added in the dual of personal pronouns and in the plural of nouns and of the pronoun of the third person, is added to a verb the subject of which is in the dual. Compare k'- $p\bar{e}g$, thou goest; k'-pek- $ch\bar{s}$, you two go; $p\bar{o}ng$, he becomes; $p\bar{o}ng$ - $s\bar{s}$, they two become.

We have seen above that pronominal prefixes are used before nouns governing a genitive; thus, $khen\bar{e}$ $k'-s\bar{a}$, thou thy-son, thy son. An exactly corresponding form is $khen\bar{e}$ $k'-w\bar{a}$, thou thy-being, thou art. Such forms can be considered as two nouns, one governing the other in the genitive. The use of prefixes and suffixes is, however, much more extensive with verbs than in the case of nouns.

Voice.—There can be said to be three voices, an active, a passive, and a middle. The difference between the active and the passive, which latter form is always used in the case of intransitive verbs, is simply effected by adding suffixes denoting the object to the active. Several active forms are, however, wanting and replaced by the corresponding passive ones. Thus, $hip - \bar{a}$, he strikes me, literally means 'I am struck.'

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The middle is formed by adding sing or ching to the passive or intransitive form in the singular and the third person plural. In the dual a suffix ne is inserted before the dual suffix $ch\bar{i}$, and in the first and second persons plural \bar{a} -s \bar{i} is added. The verb hip- $m\bar{a}$, to strike, accordingly forms its middle as follows:—

Sing.	1	hip-ā-sing.	Dual 1	L incl.	ā-hip-ne-chī.	Plural	1	inel. ā-hip-ā-sī.
	2	k'hip-sing.	1	L excl.	hip-ne-chī-gē.		1	excl. hip-ā-sī-gē.
			9	2	k'-hip-ne-chī.		2	k'hip-ā-sī.
	3	hip-sing.	ę	3	hip-ne-chī.		3	mē-hip-sing.

The middle is also used as a reflexive form, and further in forms such as $k\bar{u}$ -ching, he carried on his back.

Subject and object.—It has already been remarked that the subject and the object are often indicated by means of pronominal prefixes and suffixes added to the verb. If more than one prefix is used at the same time, the first person precedes the second, and the second the third; thus, $\bar{a}-k'-hip$, my-thy-striking, you strike me; $k'-m\bar{e}-hip$, thy-their-striking, they strike thee.

It has already been remarked that active-transitive forms are commonly distinguished from such as are passive-intransitive. Limbu does not, however, possess complete sets of active and passive forms. Intransitives always take the passive form, and the same is also the case with many active forms of transitive verbs.

A subject of the first person singular is indicated by adding ang, or, after vowels ng; thus, $p\bar{e}g$ -ang, I went; hip- $t\bar{u}$ -ng, I strike him; hip-ne- $n\bar{\imath}$ -ng, I strike you two. Instead of ang we find \bar{a} in the present tense of intransitive and passive verbs; thus, $p\bar{e}k$ - \bar{a} , I go; $p\bar{o}k$ - \bar{a} , I arise; $s\bar{\imath}\bar{a}$ - $k\bar{o}t$ - \bar{a} , I am dying; hip- \bar{a} , I am struck by him. This \bar{a} is perhaps simply the copula; compare $ang\bar{a}$ $y\bar{a}kth\bar{u}ng$ - $b\bar{a}$ - \bar{a} , I Limbu-am. It is, however, also possible that \bar{a} has been derived from $(a)ng\bar{a}$, I, for a preceding soft sound is sometimes hardened before this \bar{a} ; thus, $p\bar{e}k$ - \bar{a} , I go, but $p\bar{e}g\bar{a}$, he went.

A subject of the first person singular is not marked if the object is of the second person singular; thus, $hip-n\bar{e}$, I strike thee. The form \bar{a} -hip-ne- $ch\bar{i}$, I strike me and thee, is identical with the first person plural of the middle.

The suffix ang, ng, is also used to denote an object of the first person singular if the subject is of the second person singular past or imperative, or the third person singular or plural of the past. Thus, k'-hip- $t\bar{a}ng$, struckest me; $p\bar{i}$ -r-ang- $n\bar{e}$, give me; hip- $t\bar{a}ng$, he struck me; $m\bar{e}$ -hip- $t\bar{a}ng$, they struck me. Ang is replaced by \bar{a} in the corresponding forms of the present; thus, k'hip- \bar{a} , strikest me; hip- \bar{a} , strikes me; $m\bar{e}$ -hip- \bar{a} , they strike me. Such forms are properly passive. If the subject is of the second person dual or plural, \bar{a} is prefixed; thus, \bar{a} -k'-hip- $s\bar{i}$, you two strike me; \bar{a} -hip- $t\bar{e}$ - $ch\bar{e}$, strike me ye two; \bar{a} -k'-hip- $t\bar{i}$, you struck me. Forms such as hip- $s\bar{i}$, they two strike me; $s\bar{u}t$ - $ch\bar{i}$, they two finish me, are simply the dual of the base and do not contain any suffix indicating the object.

A subject of the second person singular is indicated by prefixing k'- to the verb; thus k'- $p\bar{e}g$, goest; k'- $p\bar{e}$, wentest; k'- $ch\bar{o}g\bar{u}$, didst it. In the imperative a suffix \bar{e} or $n\bar{e}$ is used instead; thus, $p\bar{o}k$ -h- \bar{e} , become; hip-tang- \bar{e} , strike me; $p\bar{v}$ -rang- $n\bar{e}$, give me.

The suffix $n\bar{e}$ is also used to denote an object of the second person singular if the subject is of the first person singular; thus, $kip-n\bar{e}$, I strike thee. Such forms are probably originally passive; compare $khen\bar{e}$ $h\bar{a}-n\bar{e}$, thou who-art? $khen\bar{e}$ $k\bar{e}-hip-p\bar{a}-n\bar{e}$, thou you m, part 1.

art a beater. The same is also the case with forms such as k'-hip, he strikes thee; k'-hip- $t\bar{e}$, he struck thee; k'- $m\bar{e}$ -hip, they strike thee, etc. Other forms do not contain any suffix to denote an object of the second person singular; thus, hip- $\bar{a}s\bar{\iota}$ - $g\bar{e}$, we strike or struck thee; hip-ne- $ch\bar{\iota}$ - $g\bar{e}$, we two strike, or struck, thee. Compare the forms registered above under the head of the middle voice.

A subject of the third person singular is not indicated by means of any prefix or suffix; thus, $p\bar{e}g$, he goes; $p\bar{e}$, he went; $hip-t\bar{\imath}-g\bar{e}$, he strikes us, etc.

An object of the third person singular is indicated by suffixing \bar{u} , $t\bar{u}$, $kh\bar{u}$, $d\bar{u}$, $s\bar{u}$, or $r\bar{u}$. I am unable to see any law regulating the use of the various consonants preceding the \bar{u} . The actual suffix is probably \bar{u} , and the various consonants preceding it apparently belong to the past. Thus, $ch\bar{o}g\bar{u}$, he did it; $m\bar{e}$ -hip- $t\bar{u}$, they strike him; $p\bar{a}ng$ - $kh\bar{u}$, he sent him; $m\bar{a}n$ - $d\bar{u}$, he finished eating it; $n\bar{a}m$ - $s\bar{u}$, he smelt him; $k\bar{i}$ - $r\bar{u}$ - $s\bar{i}$ - $r\bar{u}$, he feared-him-died-him, he was dying by fear of him; $s\bar{u}$ - $r\bar{u}$ -ng, I finished him; k-hip-s- \bar{u} , you two strike him; $s\bar{u}$ - $ch\bar{u}$, they two finish him. The two last instances show that this \bar{u} supersedes the final \bar{i} of the dual suffix $s\bar{i}$, $ch\bar{i}$, compare k-pok- $s\bar{i}$, you two become; $s\bar{u}$ - $ch\bar{i}$, they two finish. The suffix \bar{u} is, on the other hand, dropped in the imperative; thus, hip- $t\bar{e}$, strike him; dual hip-te- $ch\bar{e}$, plural hip-tem $m\bar{e}$.

A subject of the first person dual including the person addressed is indicated by prefixing \bar{a} and suffixing the dual $s\bar{\imath}$ or $ch\bar{\imath}$; thus, $\bar{a}-p\bar{e}k-ch\bar{\imath}$, I and thou go; $\bar{a}-p\bar{e}-s\bar{\imath}$, we went; $\bar{a}-w\bar{a}-ye-ch\bar{\imath}$, we were, etc. The final $\bar{\imath}$ is superseded by the \bar{u} indicating an object of third parson; thus, $\bar{a}-hip-s-\bar{u}$, we strike him; $\bar{a}-hip-te-ch-\bar{u}$, we struck him.

An object of the inclusive first person dual is expressed in the same way if the subject is of the third person; thus, \bar{a} -hip- $s\bar{i}$, he strikes thee and me; \bar{a} -m \bar{e} -hip- $s\bar{i}$, they, or they two, strike thee and me. Such forms are in reality passive. The reflexive form is used with a subject of the first person; thus, \bar{a} -hip-ne-ch \bar{i} , I strike us two. If the subject is of the second person, an object of the first person dual or plural is simply indicated by prefixing \bar{a} , the prefix of the first person singular; thus, \bar{a} -k-hip, thou, you two, or you, strike us two, or us; \bar{a} -hip- $t\bar{e}$, strike us two, or us. In such cases there does not appear to be any difference between such forms as include and exclude the person addressed.

A subject of the first person dual, when the person addressed is excluded, is indicated by adding $s\bar{\imath}$ - $g\bar{e}$ or $ch\bar{\imath}$ - $g\bar{e}$; thus pek- $ch\bar{\imath}$ - $g\bar{e}$, we two go; $p\bar{e}$ - $s\bar{\imath}$ - $g\bar{e}$, we went; hip-ne- $ch\bar{\imath}$ - $g\bar{e}$, we strike you. The \bar{u} indicating an object of the third person is substituted for the $\bar{\imath}$ of $s\bar{\imath}$ - $g\bar{e}$, $ch\bar{\imath}$ - $g\bar{e}$; thus, hip-s-u- $g\bar{e}$, we two strike him; $s\bar{u}$ - $r\bar{e}$ -ch-u- $g\bar{e}$, we two finished him.

An object of the exclusive first person dual is indicated by means of the same suffix if the subject is of the third person singular or plural; thus, hip-tē-chī-gē, he struck us two; mē-hip-sī-gē, they strike us two. Such forms can just as well be translated 'we two were struck,' 'we two are struck by them,' respectively. If the subject is of the first or second person, an object of the exclusive first person dual is expressed in the same way as if the person addressed is included.

A subject of the second person dual is indicated by prefixing k' and suffixing $s\bar{\imath}$ or $ch\bar{\imath}$, the final $\bar{\imath}$ being dropped before the \bar{u} denoting an object of the third person. Thus, $k'p\bar{e}k-ch\bar{\imath}$, you go; $\bar{u}-k'-hip-te-ch\bar{\imath}$, you struck me; $k'hip-s-\bar{u}$, you strike him. The profix k' is used alone, $i.\epsilon$., the second person singular is substituted for the second person

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plural, if the object is of the first person dual or plural; see above. In the imperative the prefix k is dropped, and the final $ch\bar{i}$, $s\bar{i}$ is replaced by $ch\bar{e}$, $s\bar{e}$, respectively; thus, $p\bar{e}g\bar{e}$ - $ch\bar{e}$ and $p\bar{e}$ - $s\bar{e}$, go ye two; \bar{a} -hip-te- $ch\bar{e}$, strike me, us, us two; hip-te- $ch\bar{i}$ - $s\bar{e}$, strike them two, etc.

The same forms are also used to denote an object of the second person dual with a subject of the third person; thus, k'-hip-te-chī, he struck you two; k' mē-hip-te-chī, they struck you two. Such forms can, of course, just as well be translated 'you two were struck,' 'were struck by them.' respectively. If the subject is of the first person, an object of the second person dual is expressed in the same way as if it were of the second person singular. If the subject is of the first person singular, however, chī is added to the $n\bar{e}$ denoting the second person singular, and the termination ng of the first person singular is suffixed. Thus, hip-ne-chī-ng, I strike, or struck, you two; hip-ne-chī-gē, we two strike, or struck, you two.

A subject of the third person dual is expressed by adding the dual suffix $s\bar{\imath}$ or $ch\bar{\imath}$ to the base; thus, $p\bar{o}ng-s\bar{\imath}$, they two become, $w\bar{a}-y\bar{e}-ch\bar{\imath}$ or $vo\bar{a}-y\bar{a}-s\bar{\imath}$, they two were. The final $\bar{\imath}$ is dropped before the $\bar{\imath}$ denoting an object of the third person; thus, $hip-s-\bar{\imath}$, they two strike him.

There is not a complete set of forms in this person. The intransitive forms are used, without any indication of the object, if it is of the first person singular or dual excluding the person addressed; thus, hip- $s\bar{\imath}$, they two strike me, or me and him. If the object is of the first person plural, or of the second person, the corresponding forms of the third person plural are used instead; thus, \bar{a} - $m\bar{e}$ -hip, they two, or they, strike us two; k'- $m\bar{e}$ -hip- $s\bar{\imath}$, they two, or they, strike thee. Thus also \bar{a} - $m\bar{e}$ -hip- $s\bar{\imath}$, they two, or they, strike thee and me. Note $m\bar{e}$ -hip, they two strike me and him; but $m\bar{e}$ -hip- $s\bar{\imath}$ - $g\bar{e}$, they (plural) strike me and him.

An object of the third person dual or plural is indicated by adding $s\bar{\imath}$ to the \bar{u} denoting an object of the third person singular; thus, k'-hip- $t\bar{u}$ - $s\bar{\imath}$, thou strikest them; mung- $kh\bar{u}$ - $s\bar{\imath}$, he made them play; hip- $s\bar{u}$ - $s\bar{\imath}$, they two struck them, etc. The suffix ng of the first person singular and the suffix m of the first and second persons plural are put both after \bar{u} and $s\bar{\imath}$; thus, $ch\bar{a}j\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{u}$ -ng- $s\bar{\imath}$ -ng, I feasted them; hip- $t\bar{u}$ -m- $b\bar{e}$, we strike them. In the second person singular of the imperative the termination is $\bar{\imath}s\bar{e}$ and not $\bar{e}s\bar{\imath}$; thus, hip- $t\bar{\imath}$ - $s\bar{e}$, strike them two.

A subject of the first person plural including the person addressed is indicated by prefixing \bar{a} ; thus, \bar{a} - $p\bar{e}g$, I and you go; \bar{a} - $p\bar{o}k$ - $s\bar{e}$, we became. Such forms are never used with an object of the first or the second person. If there is an object of the third person, m is added to the suffix of the object; thus, \bar{a} -hip- $t\bar{u}$ -m, we strike, or struck him; \bar{a} -hip- $t\bar{u}$ -m- $s\bar{\iota}$ -m, we strike, or struck them.

The prefix \bar{a} is also used to denote an object of the inclusive first person plural; thus, $\bar{a}-k'-hip$, thou, or you, strike us; $\bar{a}-hip-t\bar{e}$, he struck us; $\bar{a}-m\bar{e}-hip$, they strike us. Such forms are properly passive. If the subject is of the first person singular, an object of the first person plural is indicated by adding $ne-n\bar{c}$; thus, hip-ne-ni-ng, I strike us.

If the person addressed is excluded, the suffix of the first person plural is $\bar{\imath}g\bar{e}$ in intransitive and passive verbs; thus, $p\bar{e}g-\bar{\imath}-g\bar{e}$, we go, we went: $p\bar{o}k-s-\bar{\imath}-g\bar{e}$, we became; $v\bar{a}-\bar{\imath}-g\bar{e}$, we were. With an object of the second person the corresponding suffix is $\bar{a}-s\bar{\imath}-g\bar{e}$, and it is $m-b\bar{e}$ if there is an object of the third person; thus, $hip-\bar{a}-s\bar{\imath}-g\bar{e}$, we you in, part i.

strike, or struck, thee, or you two, or you; $hip-t\bar{u}-m-b\bar{e}$, we strike, or struck, him; $hip-t\bar{u}-m-b\bar{e}$, we strike, or struck, them.

An object of the exclusive first person dual is indicated by adding $\bar{\imath}$ - $g\bar{e}$, thus, hip-t- $\bar{\imath}$ - $g\bar{e}$, he strikes us; $m\bar{e}$ -hip-t- $\bar{\imath}$ - $g\bar{e}$, they strike us. Such forms are properly passive. Corresponding forms with a subject of the first or second person do not appear to exist.

A subject of the second person plural is indicated by prefixing k' and suffixing an $\bar{\imath}$, before which a final vowel is often dropped. Thus, k'- $p\bar{e}g$ - $\bar{\imath}$, you go; k'- $p\bar{o}k$ -h- $\bar{\imath}$, you became; \bar{a} -k'-hip-t- $\bar{\imath}$, you strike me. If there is an object of the first person, the final $\bar{\imath}$ is apparently dropped in the present; thus, \bar{a} -k'-hip, you strike me, or us. An m is substituted for $\bar{\imath}$, if there is an object of the third person; thus, k'-hip- $t\bar{u}$ -m- $s\bar{\imath}$ -m, you strike them. The same m is used in the imperative of transitive verbs before the suffix of the second person plural, which is in that form $m\bar{e}$; thus, hip-te-m- $m\bar{e}$, strike ye him; \bar{a} -hip-te-m- $m\bar{e}$, strike me, or us; hip-te-m- $s\bar{\imath}$ - $m\bar{e}$, strike them.

A subject of the third person plural is marked by adding the prefix $m\bar{e}$; thus, $m\bar{e}$ pong, they become; $m\bar{e}$ -lak- $h\bar{e}$, they were playing; \bar{a} - $m\bar{e}$ -hip- $t\bar{e}$ -ch \bar{i} , they struck us, etc.

Verbs substantive.—Several bases are used as a verb substantive. \bar{A} is used in all persons and numbers; thus, $ang\bar{a}$ $n\bar{a}sht\bar{a}$ $k\bar{e}$ - $ch\bar{o}k$ - $p\bar{a}$ - \bar{a} , I sin doer-am, I have sinned; $hing\cdot\bar{a}$, he is alive. Other bases used in the same way are $b\bar{a}$ and $b\bar{e}$, $n\bar{e}$, $n\bar{e}$ - $b\bar{a}$, $d\bar{\imath}$ and $d\bar{i}$ - $g\bar{e}$ (first person plural) ning (second person plural), neching (second person dual), etc. The verb $l\bar{o}$ - $m\bar{a}$, to be, is also used as a copula. It takes the form $r\bar{o}$ after vowels. The present tense is $l\bar{o}$ or $r\bar{o}$ throughout; the past is $l\bar{o}$ - $r\bar{e}$, which is regularly inflected. The verb $p\bar{o}ng$ - $m\bar{a}$, to become, is often used in a similar way. It forms its past tense in $s\bar{e}$ or $h\bar{e}$; thus, $p\bar{o}k$ -h-ang or $p\bar{o}k$ -s-ang, I became. A similar verb is $w\bar{a}$ - $m\bar{a}$, to be present, to remain, to be, past $w\bar{a}$ - $y\bar{e}$. The table which follows registers the present and past of this verb:—

	SINGULAR.			DUAL.	PLI	PLURAL		
	Present.	Past.	Present.	Present. Past.		Past.		
l excl.	wő-à	wā-y-ang	wā-sī-gē	vā-ye-chī-gē	wā-i-gē	wā-i-gē		
l incl.			ฉี-พฉิ-ร ร ี	ā-wā-ye-chì	ā-wā	ā-wā-yē		
2	k'-wa	k'-wā-yē	k'-wā-sī	k'-wā-ye-chī	k³-wā-yī	k'-wā-yē		
3	108	พลิ-ษูฮิ	wā-si	wā-ye-chī	ทะอิ-พธิ	mē-wā-ye		

Finite verb.—The inflexion of the finite verb is comparatively simple, allowing for the difficulties resulting from the use of the pronominal prefixes and suffixes. There are only two real tenses, a present which is also used as a future, and a past.

Present tense.—The base alone is used as a present tense; thus, $p\bar{e}k-\bar{a}$, I go; $k\cdot p\bar{e}g$, thou goest; $p\bar{e}g$, he goes; dual 1 incl. \bar{a} - $p\bar{e}k$ - $ch\bar{\imath}$, 1 excl. $p\bar{e}k$ - $ch\bar{\imath}$; plural 1 incl. \bar{a} - $p\bar{e}g$; 1 excl. $p\bar{e}g$ - $ig\bar{e}$; 2 k'- $p\bar{e}g$ - $ig\bar{e}$; 3 $m\bar{e}$ - $p\bar{e}g$.

In the case of transitive verbs the same form is often used in the present and past tense. Some of these seem to belong to the present, while others appear to be originally

forms of the past. To the former class belong some forms where the subject is of the first person and the object of the second, and which seem to be closely connected with the forms registered above under the head of middle voice. Such forms are hip-nē, I strike thee; ā-hip-ne-chī, I strike us two; hip-ne-chī-ng, I strike you two; hip-ne-nī-ng, I strike you, or us; hip-ne-chī-gē, we two strike thee, or you; hipā-sī-gē, we strike thee, or you.

To the second class, which seems to contain forms originally belonging to the past tense, belong all those forms which contain an object suffix of the third person if the subject is of the singular or the plural; thus, $hip \cdot t\bar{u} \cdot ng$, I strike him; $m\bar{e} \cdot hip \cdot t\bar{u} \cdot s\bar{s}$, they strike them. The same is the case if the object is of the second person plural and the subject of the third person; thus, $k' \cdot hip \cdot t\bar{i}$, he strikes you; $k' \cdot m\bar{e} \cdot hip \cdot t\bar{i}$, they two, or they, strike you. A form of the same kind is, finally, the third person singular with an object of the exclusive first person plural; thus, $hip \cdot t\bar{i} \cdot g\bar{e}$, he strikes us.

All other forms of the present are quite regular. Thus, k'-hip- \bar{a} , thou strikest me; \bar{a} -k'-hip, thou strikest us; k'-hip, thou art struck by him; \bar{a} -hip- $s\bar{\iota}$, we two are struck by him; \bar{a} -hip-s- $\bar{\iota}$, we two strike him, and so forth.

A kind of present definite is formed by adding \bar{a} , $b\bar{a}$, $b\bar{e}$, or other forms of the copula to the present; thus, \bar{a} - $n\bar{i}$ \bar{a} - $l\bar{a}ng$ - $b\bar{a}$, we are dancing; $kh\bar{u}n\bar{e}$ $l\bar{u}ng$ - $b\bar{a}$, he is dancing; $m\bar{e}$ - $l\bar{u}ng$ - $b\bar{e}$, they are dancing; $khen\bar{e}$ $\bar{a}tang$ k'- $v\bar{a}$ - $b\bar{e}$, where do you live?

Past time.—The base alone is sometimes used as a past tense; thus, k'- $p\bar{e}$, wentest; $p\bar{e}$, went. Commonly, however, an \bar{e} is added, thus, $p\bar{e}g$ - \bar{e} , went; $p\bar{j}g$ - \bar{e} , arose. This \bar{e} is always dropped before pronominal suffixes beginning with vowels; thus, $p\bar{j}g$ -ang, I went; $ch\bar{o}g$ - \bar{u} -ng, I did it.

The suffix \tilde{e} is commonly preceded by a consonant. I have noted the following:— kh, t, d, r, s, and h. Thus, $pang-kh-\tilde{u}$, he sent him; $l\tilde{o}k-t\tilde{e}$, he ran; hip-t-ang, he struck me; $hip-t-\tilde{u}-ng$, I struck him; $m\tilde{a}n-d-\tilde{u}$, he finished eating it; $k\tilde{e}-r\tilde{e}$, he arrived; $ph\tilde{e}-r\tilde{e}$, he came; $s\tilde{u}-r-\tilde{u}-ng$, I finished him; $l\tilde{a}-s\tilde{e}$, he entered; $kh\tilde{o}-s-\tilde{u}-ng$, I found him; $p\tilde{o}k-h\tilde{e}$, he became, and so on.

The suffix \bar{e} is also dropped before the copula \bar{a} ; thus, $p\bar{e}g-\bar{a}$, he went; $p\bar{o}g-\bar{a}$, he arose; $ph\bar{e}-r-\bar{a}$, he came.

A final consonant is often changed in the past. Thus t is dropped in $s\bar{u}t-m\bar{z}$, to finish, past $s\bar{u}-r-\bar{u}$; ng is changed to k in $p\bar{o}ng-m\bar{a}$, to become, past $p\bar{o}k-h\bar{e}$, became; $l\bar{a}ng-m\bar{a}$, to dance, past $l\bar{a}k-\bar{e}$, he danced, etc.

A perfect is formed by adding $b\bar{a}n$ to the past; thus, $kh\bar{o}$ - $s\bar{u}$ -ng- $b\bar{a}n$, I have found him; sep-k'-pang- $kh\bar{u}$ - $s\bar{i}$, thou hast caused them to kill; $ch\bar{o}g\bar{u}$ - $b\bar{a}n$, he has done.

A pluperfect is formed by adding bānē-bā or bānēs-bā to the past; thus, i-tū bānē(s)-bā, he had said.

Other periphrastic forms of the past are $s\bar{\imath}a-b\bar{e}-b\bar{a}n$, he has been dead; $k\bar{e}-m\bar{a}-ben$ $w\bar{a}$, he is a-lost-one, he was lost; $khom-men\bar{a}$, he was found by us; $hip-t\bar{u}-m-men\bar{a}$, we were beating him; $hip-t\bar{u}-m-men\bar{a}-s\bar{\imath}$, were beating them, and so on.

Imperative.—The imperative is formed by adding \tilde{e} , before which the same consonants can be used as in the case of the past tense, with which the imperative mainly agrees in form. Thus, $p\tilde{e}g-\tilde{e}$, go; $y\tilde{u}ng-\tilde{e}$, sit; $p\tilde{i}-r\tilde{e}$, give; $l\tilde{o}k-t\tilde{e}$, run.

In the dual ché or se, and in the plural më is added; thus, pêgeché, pêgemé, go ye; chēse, chēme, eat; yūngeche, yūngeme, sit, and so on.

A corresponding first person dual and plural is formed by adding $ch\bar{\imath}$, $\bar{\imath}$, respectively; thus, $p\bar{e}$ - $ch\bar{\imath}$, let us two go; $p\bar{e}g$ - $\bar{\imath}$, let us go. In $ch\bar{a}$ - $m\bar{a}$, let us eat, the infinitive is used instead, and in thang, let us become (merry), the base alone is employed as an imperative.

An object is indicated by inserting the usual prefixes and suffixes; thus, $p\bar{\imath}-r-ang-n\bar{e}$, give me; $ch\bar{o}k-ang-\bar{e}$, make me; $\bar{a}-h\bar{a}-t\bar{e}$, divide to us; $chak-te-m\bar{e}$, put it on him; $s\bar{e}-r-\bar{e}-m\bar{e}$, kill it, etc. The form $p\bar{\imath}-rang-n\bar{e}$, give me, shows that \bar{e} is often replaced by $n\bar{e}$ after ng.

A negative imperative is expressed by prefixing meh and suffixing $n\bar{e}$, or, after ng $nin\bar{e}$ in the singular, $ch\bar{e}$ - $n\bar{e}$ in the dual, and $min\bar{e}$ in the plural. Thus, meh met-ang- $nin\bar{e}$, do not call me; meh hip-tem- $min\bar{e}$, do not ye beat him. If there is already a prefix indicating the object, n, or, before labials, m, is added to this prefix, and meh is not used. The table which follows registers the principal forms of the imperative of hip- $m\bar{a}$, to strike.

	Sti	RIKE THOU.	STRIKE	E YE TWO.	STRIKE YE.			
	Positive.	Negative.	Positive.	Negative.	Positive.	Negative.		
me	hip-tang-ē	meh-hip-tang- ninë	ā-hip-te-chē	ān-hip-te-chē- nē	ā-hip-tem-mē	ān-hip-tem-minē		
thec	hip-sing-ē	meh-kip-sing- ninē						
kim	kîp-tē	meh-hip-lō-nō	hip-te-chē	meh-ki p- te-chē- nē	hip-tem-mē	meh-hip-tem-mine		
us two or	ā-hip-tē	ā-n-kip-tē-nē	&-hip-te-chē	ān-hip-te-chē- nē	ē-hip-tem-mē	ān-hip-tem-minē		
you two			hip-ne-chē	mch-hip-ne-chē- nē	kig-āsi-mē	meh-hip-āsim- minē		
them two or them	hip-tē-sē	meh-hip-të-së-në	hip-te-chi-sē	mek-hip-te-chi- rë-në	hip-tem-si-nië	meh-hip-tem-sim- minë		

An ō can be added to the positive imperative, if the action is desired to take place after some time; thus, hip-tang-ē-ō, strike me in a little while.

Verbal nouns and participles.—The suffix $m\bar{a}$ is commonly used in order to form an infinitive or verbal noun; thus, $h\bar{a}$ - $m\bar{a}$, to divide; $k\bar{u}$ - $m\bar{a}$, to carry on one's back; kke- $m\bar{a}$, to lift up; $kk\bar{o}$ - $m\bar{a}$, to find; $supl\bar{a}$ $n\bar{i}$ -p- $m\bar{a}$ $s\bar{a}$ -p- $m\bar{a}$ k'-le- $s\bar{u}$ -le- $s\bar{u}$ '-n- $b\bar{i}$, can you read and write or no?

The infinitive of purpose is formed by adding $s\tilde{e}$, $ch\tilde{e}$, or sometimes $kh\tilde{e}$, thus, $k\tilde{o}m$ -se, in order to graze; $\tilde{o}me$ - $ch\tilde{e}$, in order to watch; $ang\tilde{a}$ $y\tilde{a}kth\tilde{u}ng$ - $b\tilde{a}$ - \tilde{a} ang $sip\tilde{a}h\tilde{i}$ - $y\tilde{o}$ $bhart\tilde{i}$ $p\tilde{o}ng$ - $kh\tilde{e}$ (or -se) $t\tilde{e}$ -ang, I am a Limbu and I have come to become a soldier; $t\tilde{a}ndlk$ ang k'-kip-se $p\tilde{e}k$ - \tilde{a} , to-morrow I will go to beat thee.

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A relative participle and noun of agency is formed by prefixing $k\bar{e}$ and suffixing $p\bar{a}$ or $b\bar{a}$, feminine $m\bar{a}$; thus, $k\bar{e}$ -chā-bā, an eater; $k\bar{e}$ -chōk- $p\bar{a}$, a doer; $k\bar{e}$ -yūng-bā, a sitter, an inhabitant. Such forms can be inflected for person. Compare the forms of $k\bar{e}$ -hip- $p\bar{a}$, a striker, which follow:—

	Singular.	Dual.	Plural
l incl.		kē-hip-pā-et	kē- hip-pā-ti
l exclusive	kë-hip-pa	kē-hip-pā-sī-gē	kē-kip-pī-tī-gē
2	kē-hip-pa-nē	kē-h-p-pā-neching	kë-hip-pā-ne-ning
3	kē-hip-pa	kē-hip-pā-sī	kē-hip-pā-sī

Thus, ātang kē-yūng-bā-nē, where sitter-you? where do you dwell? Kōyā khōlā kē-yūng-bā-ā, Koya river sitter-am, I live in the Koya district; Kōyā khōlāsang ātī-n pūng-phē-yō kē-yūng-bā-nē, Koya being what village-in sitter-art? in what village of the Koya do you dwell? angā nē-sū-ng khenē yāmbōk nō-rik kē-chōg-pā-nē rēchhō, I see-it thou work well doer-art stayest, I see you did your work well.

A verbal noun denoting the thing done or effected by the action of the verb is formed by adding n; i.e., probably $\bar{\imath}n$, to the base; thus, $ch\bar{a}$ -n, food; $p\bar{a}$ -n, speech.

There is no conjunctive participle. The word ang, also, and, is added to the ordinary tenses instead; thus, $t\bar{a}ndik$ angā $k'hip-\bar{a}-ang$ $khen\bar{e}$ $k'-p\bar{e}g$, to-morrow me thou-wilt beat-me-and thou thou-wilt-go, to-morrow having beaten me thou wilt go; $m\bar{e}m\bar{a}$ angā k'-hip-tang-ang $khen\bar{e}$ $k'-p\bar{e}g\bar{e}-b\bar{a}n$, yesterday me thou-struckest-and thou thou-gone-hast; $t\bar{e}t-h\bar{a}$ lo-te-mē-ang chak-te-mē, clothes take-them-out-ye-and put-on-him-ye, having brought clothes put them on him; $kh\bar{o}p-s\bar{u}-ang$, having taken up; $k\bar{e}-r\bar{e}-ang$, having arrived. Sang is sometimes used instead of ang; thus, $w\bar{u}-y\bar{e}-s-ang$, having been; $khen\bar{e}$ $y\bar{a}k-th\bar{u}ng-b\bar{a}-n\bar{e}-s-ang$ $\bar{a}t\bar{i}sm\bar{a}$ $y\bar{a}kth\bar{u}ng-b\bar{a}-n\bar{e}$, thou Limbu-being what-sort Limbu-art?

An adverbial participle is formed by adding $l\bar{e}$, $il\bar{e}$, $n\bar{i}l\bar{e}$, or $mel\bar{e}$; thus, $tukh\bar{e}$ chyā- $l\bar{e}$, distress becoming; $t\bar{a}ndik$ khūnē hip-ā- $il\bar{e}$ khenē $t\bar{e}$, to-morrow he beats-me-when thou come, come thou to-morrow at the time when he is beating me; $mem\bar{a}$ khūnē hip-tang- $n\bar{i}l\bar{e}$ khenē k'- $t\bar{e}$, yesterday when he was beating me thou camest; \bar{a} -set- $l\bar{a}k$ -me- $l\bar{e}$, my-hunger-getting-on, because I am hungering, (I die) from hunger; khenī nākhen k'-hip- $t\bar{u}$ -m- $mel\bar{e}$ angā $n\bar{e}$ -neni-ng, I see you beating him.

It will be seen that the difference between $\bar{\imath}l\bar{e}$ and $n\bar{\imath}l\bar{e}$ is that the latter is used after nasals. This form, which should be compared with the suffix $l\bar{e}$, $\bar{\imath}l\bar{e}$, $n\bar{\imath}l\bar{e}$, mentioned above under the head of nouns, is often used in conditional phrases; thus, $ang\bar{a}$ $s\bar{\imath}ng$ $g\bar{o}t\bar{u}$ -ng- $n\bar{\imath}l\bar{e}$ $ang\bar{a}$ him $ch\bar{o}k$ - $m\bar{a}$ $s\bar{u}k$ - $t\bar{u}$ -ng, if I had wood I could build a house.

Negative verb.—The negative verb is formed from the positive one by prefixing meh and suffixing in, or, after vowels n. If the verb contains a pronominal prefix meh is replaced by en, n, or, before labials em, m, respectively, added to the prefix. The suffix in is replaced by nen if it is added immediately to the base; thus, meh $k\bar{o}$ - $t\bar{u}$ -n, he did not get anything; meh-hip- \bar{a} -sing-in, I do not beat myself; ken-hip- \bar{a} -in, thou art not beating me; $\bar{a}n$ -ken-hip-nen, thou art not beating us.

Interrogative particle.—There is apparently an interrogative particle $g\bar{o}$; thus, $h\bar{a}$ $n\bar{e}$ - $g\bar{o}$, who is it? $khen\bar{e}$ $\bar{a}t\bar{i}$ k'- $w\bar{a}$ - $g\bar{o}$, where do you dwell? $B\bar{e}$ can also be added; thus, $khen\bar{e}$ k'- $p\bar{e}g$ - $b\bar{e}$, goest thou? $kh\bar{u}n\bar{e}$ $p\bar{e}$ - $b\bar{e}$, did he go? In disjunctive questions $b\bar{i}$ is added to both members; thus, $khen\bar{e}$ $\bar{a}ch\bar{o}n$ $k\bar{a}\bar{i}l\bar{e}$ - $k\bar{a}\bar{i}l\bar{e}$ $sark\bar{a}r$ - $e\bar{o}$ $y\bar{a}mb\bar{o}k$ k'- $ch\bar{o}g\bar{u}$ - $b\bar{i}$ ken- $ch\bar{o}g\bar{u}$ -n- $b\bar{i}$, thou formerly ever-ever government-in work didst didst-not? have you ever served the government before or not?

Compound verbs.—Causals are sometimes formed by aspirating the initial consonant; thus, $p\bar{e}$ - $m\bar{a}$, to fly; $ph\bar{e}$ - $m\bar{a}$, to cause to fly. The usual way of forming causal verbs is, however, to add $p\bar{a}ng$ - $m\bar{a}$ or $y\bar{a}$ - $m\bar{a}$, to the principal verb; thus, sem- $p\bar{a}ng$ - $kh\bar{u}$ - $s\bar{\iota}$, he caused them to kill; sep-k'- $p\bar{a}ng$ - $kh\bar{u}$ - $s\bar{\iota}$ - $b\bar{a}n$, thou hast caused them to kill. The principal verb can be inflected as well, and $l\bar{o}$, $r\bar{o}$, is often interposed; thus, $ang\bar{a}$ $apn\bar{e}$ peg- \bar{a} -sing- $l\bar{o}$ $p\bar{a}ng$ -a-sing (or $y\bar{a}$ -n-a-sing), I cause myself to go; $ang\bar{a}$ $khen\bar{e}$ k' peg- $l\bar{o}$ - $p\bar{a}ng$ - $n\bar{e}$ (or $-y\bar{a}n\bar{e}$), I cause thee to go; $kh\bar{u}nch\bar{\iota}$ $m\bar{e}m\bar{a}$ $khench\bar{\iota}$ - $nech\bar{\iota}$ k'- $p\bar{e}$ - $ch\bar{\iota}$ - $r\bar{o}$ k'- $m\bar{e}$ - $p\bar{a}ng$ - $tech\bar{\iota}$; they caused you two to go yesterday, etc.

Frequentatives are formed by adding $l\bar{o}$, $r\bar{o}$, followed by the verb $p\bar{o}t$ - $m\bar{a}$, to continue, to the various forms of the principal verb; thus, hip- $n\bar{e}$ - $r\bar{o}$ - $p\bar{o}t$ - $n\bar{e}$, I am continuing to beat thee. The past tense of $p\bar{o}t$ - $m\bar{a}$ is $p\bar{o}t$ - $ch\bar{e}$ which is regularly inflected.

Desideratives are formed by adding $k\bar{o}$ followed by the inflected auxiliary $l\bar{o}$ - $m\bar{a}$, to be, to the inflected principal verb; thus, hip- $t\bar{u}ng$ - $k\bar{o}$ -k'- $l\bar{o}$, thou art wishing to beat him; chang- $k\bar{o}$ - $l\bar{o}$, he wanted to eat.

An inceptive is formed by adding the various forms of $ch\bar{o}g-m\bar{a}$, to do, to the verbal noun ending in $m\bar{a}$; thus, $p\bar{e}g-m\bar{a}$ $ch\bar{o}g-\bar{a}-sing$, I begin to go. By adding the various forms of $k\bar{o}t-m\bar{a}$, to be ready, to this form or to the inflected principal verb, a compound is formed which means 'to be about,' 'to be ready' to accomplish the action indicated by the principal verb; thus, $hip-m\bar{a}$ $ch\bar{o}g-\bar{u}-ng$ $k\bar{o}t-\bar{u}-ng$, I am ready to beat him.

Potentials and completives are formed by adding $s\bar{u}k-m\bar{a}$, to be able, and $s\bar{u}t-m\bar{a}$, to finish, respectively, to the verbal noun ending in $m\bar{a}$; thus, $hip-m\bar{a}$ $k's\bar{u}k-\bar{a}$, thou canst beat me; $hip-m\bar{a}$ $s\bar{u}-r-\bar{u}$, he is finishing beating me.

Note finally the particle $m\bar{u}$ in forms such as $p\bar{e}-m\bar{u}$, he went it is said; $hip-t\bar{u}-s\bar{\imath}-m\bar{u}$, they beat they say. $M\bar{u}$ can be compared with Sanskrit kila, etc.

A more detailed account of Limbu grammar, from the pen of Major Senior, will be published in the near future. Till then the student is referred for further details to the specimens which follow. The first is a version of the Parable for which I am indebted to Major Senior. The same gentleman has also been good enough to correct the worst mistakes in the remaining two specimens and in the list of Standard Words and Phrases which is printed on pp. 408 and ff. The original list was kindly prepared for the purposes of this Survey by the Nepal Darbar. The second specimen is a comparatively correct rendering of the Parable in the dialect of the Fāgūrāī Limbus, which has been received from Darjeeling. The third specimen, which has been kindly forwarded by the Nepal Darbar, is a version of the Parable in the dialect of the Tamarkhūlēā sept of Limbus. It contains several mistakes, and it has not been possible to correct them all.

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY, TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

LIMBU.

FEDOPIA DIALECT.

(Major H. A. R. Senior, I.S.C., 1905.)

LOCHĀ SĀ SAMPĀTĪ KĒ-CHA-BĀ. CERTAIN SON PROPERTY EATER.

nechī mānaī-lē (or yamī-lē) kū-sā wäyechi (or wāyāsī). Lochá his-sons were (were). mon-to (man-to) two Certain phō-bā-lē (or phōwā-bā-lē) kū-m-pā (or -bā) 'a-m-bē. mētū, Hekiang his-father said-to-him, 'my-father-O, nonngest-by (youngest-by) Then ã-lok tēkā-ā ā-hā-tē (or pi-r-ang-ne). tenhūn chīā (or jīā) my-share I-will-get to-us-divide (give-to-me). which this inheritance (or sāmā-pūmā) khūn-chī-īn (or kak) sāmā-hā Khūn-chī kerek pā-rē (all) properties (property) them-to father-by αll Their Tändīk-āchindān hā-tūsī. (or khūnē-ang khūne-ang) divided-to-them. To-morrow-day-after-to-morrow him-also) (him-also phōwā-bā kū-sā-lē kū-jīkōkwā khöp-sü-ang (or thi-yan-ni-yan) having-taken-up (one-day-two-days) his-son-by his-things youngest pē (or pēgā, or pēgē). Khennā pängphë-yö kū-ching-ang māngkhā There went. distant country-into carrying-on-his-back Khūnē lep-tū-tē-sū. chāh-r-ang kerek kū-jīkokwā iūā kē-rē-ang Hе playing threw-gare. gambling having-arrived allhis-things kökēlē thī-ang-thī-ang meh chāh-tū-tē-sū-ang kū-jīkōkwā iūā kerek then anything not gambling played-given-having his-things allKhūnē khen pängphe-yö vombā sāk pokhē (or pogē). kökēlē kötű'-n Hе became (arose). that country-in serere famine then had-not kē-yūng-bā Khūnē khen pāngphē-yō lāk-lō-wā. kū-set kōkēlē that country-in sitter got-continually-is. Ħе his-hunger then Khen kē-yūng-bā khūnē pok-he-ang la-sē. sēōté thik lēō him inhabitant become-having entered. That servant with one ōme-chē kū-pārīhē-yō (or pārīhā-yō, or -mō) kōm-sē phāk watching-for feeding-for swine his-fields-into kom-sē phākā (or phāk-hā) sēotē-lē pang-su (or pang-khu). Khen feeding-for swine That servant-by sent-him. chogu-kotu chān-īn chā-mā kū-set lak-te-ang phāk te-rū-sī-ang made-was-ready taken-them-having his-hunger got-having swine to-eat foodkī-rū-sī-rū-ang chā-ma kū-n-tangben phāk-hā-ren (or chang-kölö), kōrō feared-having to-eat their-master but swine-of (to-eat-wanted), 2 Q VOL. III, PART I.

mek-mek i-tū kū-ningwa tūm-sē-ang kō-tū Kōkēlē meh-sük-tü'-n. little-little visited-having thought his-mind was-readu Then not-was-able. scote-hā sapök sidat khūnchī khā-khā-bā k'-him-niō 'a-m-pā-rē. pā-tū, many servants bellytheir full-full thy-house-in 'my-father-0, said. ā-set-lāk-melē sīā-kūtā. Angā kövő-nű köyö angā mē-khō-sū, chā-mā my-hunger-getting dying-am. I here-from here Ι they-receive, to-eat a-m-pā (-rō) kū-him-mö pēkā-ang a-m-pā-ren nokā-ang his-house-in gone-having my-father (-to) niy-father-of arisen-having Bhagwan-nüle nisoro a-m-pā-ren "a-m-bē, tachek-tung, God-from my-father-of presence "my-father-0, will-say-to-him-I, angā nāshtā kē-chōk-pā-ā. Angā yang-nū chōg-ang sõhmā k'-nīsōrō I enil. doer-am. I now-from done-having thy-presence ครัก meh-lo-an. meh-met-ang-nine. K'-him-mö umbāh yāmbōk ěkě k'-sā not-call-me-thou. Thy-house-in thus monk thy-son not-am. as kū-m-pā-rēō kū-bēsang chōk-ang-ē." Kokélé pogā-ang kē-chōk-pā make-me." arisen-having his-father-to Then of-him-near doerkū-m-pā-rē k û-sâ-n nē-sū-ang waye-sang Mangkha tīā (or tīē). his-father-by his-80n seen-him-having being Far went. lok-te: tem-nechi-ang kū-m-pā-rē sen-ne-su-ang kū-bēsang embraced-they-two-having his-father-by ran; recognized-him-having of-him-near khūn-chī nēdeng-nē-mō nām-nechī kū-sā-lē nām-sú; nām-sū ang smelt-him; they cheeks-two-on smelt-they-two smelt-him alsohis-son-by ītū-bānēbā. kū-sā chūkben kú-ningwā-mō chūmā chà-nechī. Kokele iastō his-mind-in thought-had, his-son youngest kiss ate-they-two. Then as kū-m-pā Kū-m-pā-rē kū-sēōtē-hā mētūsī ālō tāchēk-tū. His-father-by his-servants he-said-to-them now his-father (-to) he-told-him. nōbā-nōbā ' harā-harā tēt-hā lote-me-ang chak-te-mē; kak-bhandā 'quick-quick all-among clothes taken-out-having good-good put-on-ye; kū-hūk-chūgō-khemō kū-lang-hēyō angūtī wā-te-mē, lang-kopa chak-te-mē; his-hand-fingers-on put-on-ye, his-legs-upon shoes ring put-on-ye; ōrūp-lūp kē-lō-ben phe-te-me-ang se-rē-mē. se-rē-mē-ang böhör-en fat being brought-you-having kill-it-ye, killed-it-ye-having heifer ani chā-mā thiang-phele ā-s**ā-n** sīrā thang, kōn hékiang $an\bar{\imath}$ should-eat 100 this merry become, because my-80n then we mā-(kotē-)han (or -men), kē-hing-bā kē-mā-ben-wā, khōkokēlē pōkhē; dying-(about-) was, became ; lost-was, foundthen living sù-ng.' Kōkēlē kak khunchi sīrā thang-nie. him-I. Then allthey came-up. merry

Kū-sā tūm-ben Songward-ronu (or monu) khunē songwārō-mō waye. His-son Fields-in-from he eldest. fields-in was. thang-ang kēr-lō-kōtē-lē gānā ku-hīm-bēsēō (or bēsang) hīm-mō -come-up-haning to-arrive-about-being singing his-kouse-near house-in

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bājā mē-līk-lē-mūk-tē-bān khep-sung. !] Sēbtē thik tū-ang music they dan ing-paying-were he-heard. Sercant O.:e summoned-having sēlāp-tūng, [1] i kön thèbe? thiang mē-mūkā, thiang mē-lāng-bē? he-asked-lim. 'this what? why they-play, why they-dancing-are? Sēōtē-lē tāchek-tū. 'k'-nūsā kē-mā-ben kū-m-pā-rā Servant-by he-said-to-him, thy-younger-brother the-lust-one his-father-by khō-sū-ang tāh-rū, ānī-gē sīrā thang-ang kū-m-pā-rē khūnchī found-him-having brought-him, we gladcome-having his-father-by them läng-päng-khūsī, gānā bājā müng-khūsī. Kū-m-vā-rē orāp-lūp to-dance-caused-them, music made-them-play. His-father-by fattened singing böhören phe-te-me-ang sem-päng-khūsī. Kū-m-pi-rē kon the-being-one heifer brought-having to-kill-caused-them. His-father-by vāmbok-in kak chögū-bā(n) (or chog-jang-khūsī), thiang-phele work all done-has (to-do-caused-them), because men-dūk-hē-men-chak-hē khō-sū.' Kū-sā tūmbē-lē not-ill thy-younger-brother he-found-him.' His-son elder-bu khep-sū-ang kŭ-vāk lērē kū-hīm-bēsang thang-mā meh-ten-nen. heard-it-having his-anger got-loose his-house-near to-come-up not-wanted. Kū-m-pā köt-nänak pliërë-ang kū-sā-n tūm-bā hēkīang ūtū. His-father this-side come-having his-son eldest then he-called-him_ Khūnē kū-m-pā-rēō sīlāp-tů, 'ōmēt-ang-ē, pān kön yārik tüngbe He his-father-to speech he-asked, 'look-to-me-thou, these 80-many khep-sū-ng (or tend-ang); k'-yāmbōk chōgū-ng. k'-besang wayang; k'-pān was-I;thy-speech heard-I(obeyed-I);thy-work did-I. Kāīlē-rang nāshtā men-chog-pā. Kōrō mēndak-sā thīk ken-pī-rang-nen (or -nin), not-doer. Butgoat-young one thou-gavest-me-not, jāsorī a-n-dingbā-hā chājā-tūng-sing. Ālō k'-sā chük-pen te-ang, so-that my-friends feast-them-I. Now thy-son younger come-having, chĩã k'-jīkōkwā-hā lep-tū tē-sū-b**ā**n. kheuē khūnē k'-tāh-rūwho thy-substance threw given-away-has, thou him thou-brought-himang böhören chĩã khenē k'-hing-khū khūnē kû-lagî āló thou thou-didst-care-for-it heifer which having he his-sake-for nous sep-k'-pāng-khūsī-bān.' Kū-m-pā-rē khūnē mētū, 'ā-sā-ē. to-kill-thou-caused-them-hast.' His-father-by him he-said-to-him, 'my-son-0, khenē söde-phöre k'-wa: ā-bēsang chīā angā-ö kē-wā-ben (or -pān), thou me-with always thou-art; whatmine remains, Sīrā soso-lālang chog-mā no-bā, thiang-phelē khenë-in. thang-ang kõn festivity thine. Merry become-having to-do good, because k'-nūsä sīā-bān, ālō hing-ā; khūnē kē-mā-ben. ālō yang-phērī thy-younger-brother died-had, now lives: he lost-one-was, now again khō-sū-ng-bān.' found-him-I-have.

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IBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

LIMBU.

FAGÜRAĪ DIALECT.

(DISTRICT DARJEELING.)

nechchhī Khōm-bheng wayē-sī. pāk-pā-lē thik-le ku-sā Yāp-mi Then one-of his-sons twowere. younger-by Man tōk-mā kē-wā-ben. iō pātū, 'a-m-bē. chiā angā khō-sū-ng-ben. I existing, whichpoke, 'my-father-O, which property got-I-will-have. Khom-bheng kholle pirang-nē. āphnā tōk-men phōk-sū Then him-by own give-me-thou. property divided me pī-ra-sī. Mūrē meh-yūngē-n phōkwā-bā sā kāk të-rū-ang mūrē not-he-sat allrave-to-them. Long-time younger sontaken-having pēgē. Khom-bheng khōtnā ku-yāng ku-sā kāk lājē-mē taphembā Then there went. his-rupees his-pice kingdom-into allbad mān-dū-tē-sū. Khōm-bheng khōn chōgū-ang mān-dū-tēdone-having finished-eating-gave-away. Then he finished-eating-gavelājē-hep-mō yombā sak khōm-bheng khen pōgē. sū, Khōn yāngthatkingdom-in bigfamine arose. then Herupeesaway, Khōm-bheng khōn pēgē-ang khen sā-ru pēgē. kē-yūng-bā-hep-mō Then hegone-having thosepice-with went. residents-in thik-hep-mo vūng-mā chōgu. Khen him-tang-bā-lē ku-bārī-hep-mō one-with to-reside made (began). Thathouse-master-by his-fields-into Khōm-bheng khellē phāk kochhē pāng-sū. khen ku-sip-hā chiā to-care-for Then him-by swine sent-him. those his-husks which phāk-lē chōbā-hā sāppōk thim-mā āphnā ītū. Khōn atī-lē-ang swine-by belly to-fill were-eating own he-wanted. Himanyone-by ku-ningwā theang mem-pī-rū-n-lō. Khāllē sērū-ang khōm-bheng anything not-they-gave-him. Thereupon his-mind killed-having then khellē 'ām-bā-rē pātū, yollik vambok kē-chōk-pā khōn-hā-rē him-by spoke, 'nny-father-of many work docrs them-by much khoreng mē-gottū, thik-lesõ angā kōvō sak-lē siyang. Angā bread they-have-got, but I here famine-by I-died. I pok-a-ang ā-m-bā hep-mō khōm-bheng khūnē hep-mō pēkā, patū-ng, arising my-father to will-go, and him 10 will-speak-I, " yê ā-m-bē. Tang-sang-ba-le serab-met-ang-ba angā khōm-bheng khenē "O my-father-O, I Heaven-by cursed-me-has then thou

k'-nīsōrō sõhmä Angā allō k'-sā āphā-ang pā-mā memchogū-ng. thy-sight-in sindid-I. Menow thy-son in-any-way to-say theypong-racheng (sic) k'-yam-bök kē-chāk-pā thik-le pok-sang. Angā khenë not-becoming became-I. Methou thy-work doerone-of ku-sing phochang-e." Khōm-bheng khōn pog-e-ang ku-m-bā hep-mö put-me-to-work." he arisen-having his-father tolikeThen pēg-ē. Thik-legō khōn mūrē yūng-ē, ku-m-bā-rē nē-sū-ang ku-lung-mā his-father-by seen-him-having far his-liver Buthe sat, tūkhē. khōm-bheng lok-te-yūe-ang ku-nēteng-bā hep-mö his-cheek then run-come-down-having 6n pained, Ku-sā-lē khūnē mētū, 'yē khōn-in chūp-mētū. phon-chhing-hang him said-to-him, . 0 kissed-him. His-som-by embraced-having that-one Tāngsāng-bā-lē serāb mēt-ang-bān, klidmiklieng khema ām-bē. thou thy-sight-in Heaven-by curse said-to-me-has, tken my-father, sõhmā chögū-ng. Angā allo k'-sā āphāang mem-pong-ra-cheng-pok-sang.' not-becoming-became. did-I. I now thy-son in-any-way sin ku-m-bā-lē ku-yāmbōk-kē-chōk-pā her-mo mētū-sī. Allogō his-work-doers 10 re-said-to-them, his-father-by ' kāp-mang-bhandā tēt lo-tē-ang khūně chāk-tē: nō-bā good clothes taken-out-having kim put-on-thou; 'all-in-from khom-bheng ku-lang-heyo jutā wā-tē. khōm-bheng ku-huk-khēyō suwäkep his-hand-on then his-feet-on shoes put. ring then pīt-chhechhā el.ā-mā sirā kē-sō-bā sē-rē: ānī thang-lo-Khōm-bheng kill; should-eat merry becomingfatted cow-young ice Then sīā-khērē-ang, ā-sā yang-mo thī-ang-phelē kõn angā yung-i; because this dead-having-been, again of-me my-80n should-sit; yang-mô khōmenā.' Khom-bheng khen-hā mā-ē-ang, hing-ē; we-found-him. lost-having-been, againThen they revived; ningwā-tē-rō mē-yūng-ē. they-sat. heart-came

tom-bā Khom-bleng piyang-si-yo vung-ē. ku-sā thang-ë Khūnē eldest rice-fields-in sat. Then his-son came-up ku-him pēs-mō kērē. khōm-bheng kē-mē-hip-tū pokhē, arrived. then drum-they-were-beating his-house near became. ku-kām-kē-chōk-pā mukten khep-sū. Khom-bheng khellē mē-rākh-sē-bā he-heard. Then him-by his-work-doers they-dancing-were soundthē-bē?' ' kön Khölle ku-bēs-mō sendo-sū. hep-mo thik ûtū-ang rchat-is? of-him-near called-having asked-him, ' this Him-by among one k'-nūsā 'khenē tā-ē-ang khūnē mētū. wā. 'of-thee thy-younger-brother come-having said-to-him. is-present. him pīt-chhechhā Khōm-bhāang khenë kem-bā-lē kē-sō-bā sē-rū. of-thee thy-father-by fatted coto-young killed-it. Therefore

khō-sū.' Thik-lego thiang-phelle khune nūmā-tāmā khollē ku-vāk safe-and-sound he-found-him.' Buthim him-by his-anger because hōk-se-mū ·lāp-mā meh-tendē-n. khōm-bheng $_{
m him}$ Khōn lerē. to-enter not-obeyed. into Thatgot-loose, then house hep-mö khūnē ku-m-bā pākhā phērē-ang khūnē ing-lāp-mā pān of-him his-father outside come-having him to-entreat conversation Khollē ku-m-bā 'omet-tē, angā akhen mētū. chögü. tong made (began). Him-by his-father said-to-him, · 8ee, \boldsymbol{I} how-many years khenë k'-sēwā chōgū-ng. Khen-bāsang khenē k'-pan-nin pē-ang gone-having of-thee thy-service did-I. Yetof-thee thy-word medoang (?). Khom-basang khene anga anamang (?) thik chuk-pā-sā thik thou Yet small-young not-broke-I. me ever oneoneā-n-chum-ā-sibā-hā-nū sirā kem-bi-yang [-in], thang-lo-chogu-ng. thou-didst-not-give-me, my-friends-my-people-with merry become-continually-did-I. kon k'-sā-n ketnī-mā-hā-nū k'-yāng k'-sā Thik-legō khenē chōof-thee this thy-son harlots-with thy-rupees thy-pice devoured-Buttāē-mennē khōm-bhelē khenē khollē [ku-] lāgī kē-sō-bā pīttē-sū him-of his-sake-for fatted gave-away coming but thoucowchhechhā k'-sē-rū.' Ku-m-bā-lē khōn khenē mētū. ' yē ā-sā-ē. young killedest.' His-father-by that-one said-to-him, 'O my-son-O, thou angā-nū chuguh k'-wā. Jō kē-wā-ben angā-īn, kāk khenē-īn. Thik-legō art. What being mine, all me-with together Butthine. yūng-mā wā-ē, thīang-phellē siri-thang-lō kôn khenē k'-nū-sā merry-becoming to-sit is, because this of-thee thy-younger-brother sīyang yūng-ē, yāng-mō hing-ē; māē-khe-rē, yang-mo khōmenā.' again revived; lost-entirely-was, again we-found-him.' having-died sat,

[No. 23.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

LIMBU.

TAMARKHÖLEL DIALECT.

(NEPAL.)

Lochha yami thik-le nechhi ku-sā wēyē-chhī. Nechhi-vo nhōbā-lē, Some man one-to tios his-sons were-they. Two-in younger-by, 'a-m-bā-rē, chyō půmparně (sic) ansa-bhāg, pī-rang-nē,' mē-tū-lē 'my-father-O, which I-should-get share. give-me-thou, said-to-him-when a-m-bā-rē ansa-bhāg Hekiang tändik hellē pī-rang. phobā-lē my-father-by share gare-to-me. Then afterwards that-by younger-by kāk yāng-sā sup-sū khôp-sũ mängkhä pardēs pē-mū. allgathered took-up money-goods far other-country went-it-is-said. Mābēkhu (sic) möj-sanga-khungā ku-yang-ku-sa kāk mān-dū. There merriment-with his-money-his-goods allfinished-eating. Kharcha chōgū-mān-dū-ang hen thaw-eo yom-ba sak pokhā, Expenditure done-eating-finished-having that place-in heavy famine happened, hellē tükhē chīā-lē thāw-ēō lõchhā manuā thik-le hen pē-ang him-to distress becoming that place-at some man one-to gone-having Hen sahar-bāsi-lē pyāngsī-ō phāk kom-sē pāng-khū. That city-dweller-by rice-field-in sicine grazing-for sent-him. he-was-present. chō-bān Thik-lang the-ang mem-bī-rū-n. Hellē phāk-len khalung-lang Anyone-by anything they-not-gave-him. Those pigs-of food husks-with 'angā ā-sakpō khā-khā-bā.' Chēt-pa-chōg-ang pā-tū-mē-tū, meh-yō-sū-n, 'I my-belly Sense-making said-spoke, not-sufficed, filled.' 'a-m-bā-rē-mō ku-chākarē loto mē-mān-dū-lē mē-jō-ang they-finished-eating-while 'my-father-of-in his-servants bread they-eaten-having set-lak-melē a-m-bā-rēō pekā-ang, "am-bē. angā siäng. Angā "father-0, I hunger-getting am-dying. I my-father-near going, 'ā-sū-ē' chögū-ng, Bhagwan-nū chögū-ng. Angā henē-nū pāp pāp did-I. I 'my-son-0' did-I. God-from sin thee-from sin chog-ang-e," k'-tarmāīdār mēmang-swāb-mē-jukāi (sic). Angā-īn henē make-me," Me I-am-not-worthy-to-be-called. thou thy-servant yörik mē-tū-ng.' henē (sic) a-m-bā-rē-pok (sic) pēgang Pogang will-say-to-him-I. Having-arisen thou my-father-near gone-having very lökku-lung-mā dūkā, ku-m-bā-rē pharāk. we-yang nē-sū-ang his-liver his-father-by seen-him-having pained, runfar been-having

nām-sū. Ku-sā-lē hep-tu-ang ku-ning-mā-yō tang... pēg-ang embraced-having smelt-him. His-son-by his-neck-on havini gone-having Bhagwān-nū henē-nū mukhvāniī ' hē a-m-bē. mētū, ku-m-ba before God-from thee-from his-father he-said-to-him, 'O my-father-O, mch-laek-lo.' Tara "ā-sā-ē" mēt-mā henē chōg-ū-ng. Angā to-say worthy-am-not.' But " my-son-0" did-I. Me thou sintēt thāk-tē-mē-'nōb k'-chākarē-hā k'-mētūsī. henē a-m-bā-rē ' good clothes from-belowthy-servants saidst-to-them, thoumy-father-by anguti wā-te-mē, ku-lang-hā-yō ku-huk-khēyō kōl-lē brought-ye-having this-one-to his-hand-palms-on ring put-on-ye, his-feet-on Thī-ang-phā-lē juttā wā-te-mē. Ānī chā-mā thúng-mā chōgī. mōi to-drink merriment should-make. Because shoes put-on-ye. We to-eat hingā; mai-bēbān-nin, phērī khōm-menā.' phērī sīā-bēbān. kōn ā-sā this my-son dead-has-been, again alive-is; lost-has-been, again found-was.' sīrā thāngā, Hēkīang hen-hā-rē hun-chhī

pleasure came.

Then

them-bu

their

Nökh-phērā him tūm-bān pyāngsī-ō wē-yā. Helle ku-sā field-in He-returned-he-came was. house Him-of his-son elderbājā-nu-lāng khep-sū. Chākarē lochhā-thik ū-tū-ang kērā bēsang arrived music-and-dance he-heard. Servant some-one called-having near ku-yam-tuk-mā-sāk-mā ke-m-bā-'k'-nū-sā te-ang selān-tū-lē. asked-when, 'thy-younger-brother come-having his-body-safe-and-sound thy fatherchākarē-lē mētū. Hellē ku-yāk chögū,' bhōi thik rē did.' servant-by said-to-him. Him-of his-anger loosed. by feast one ku-m-bā pākhā phērā-ang lēmū-thuptū. bhitra meh-pē-n. Hellë outside come-having entreated-him. not-went. Him-of his-father inside Ku-m-bā-rē ku-bān yārīk barkha-pōkhā henē ' kōn nŏk-tū. his-word he-gave-back, ' these many years-became thou His-father-to men-khem-bē-bān ? k'-chākar chōgū-ng. Kailē-yang k'-bān Aphālang Ever-even thy-word have-I-not-listened-to? did-I. thy-service Everhenē angā ā-n-ding-bhā-nū mōj chōg-mā lōchhā bhērā sā thika sheep child one my-friends-with to-make thou merriment someBēsyā-nū k'-sān kem-pi-rang-nen. sampati kē-chā-pā kōn tāi-mennī, thou-gavest-not-to-me. Harlots-with property eater thisthy-son coming-on, ku-lāgī hellē bhōj kē-chōg-pā-nē.' Tara hellë a-m-bā-rē henē thou him-of his-sake-for feast doer-art.' Then him-of my-father-by 'hē mētū. ā-sā-ē. henē sadhai angā-nū-sōrik k'-wā; angā chīā. said-to-him. O my-son-O, me-withΙ thoualwaysart; whatkotū-ng-ban kak hene-in-ba. Harkha-bhōj chōg-mā no-ba; thiang-phale possessed-I-have all thine-is. to-make Joy-feast good;. because k'-nū-sā ā-khō-sûm.' kon sīā-bān, hing-tē; mai-bē-bān-in, this thy-younger-brother died-has. lived: lost-had-been, we-found-him.



YĀKHĀ

The Yākhās are a small tribe who are found in the same localities as the Limbus, i.e. between the Arun River and the Singilela range. They are not numerous. Most of them are found in Chainpur. There are also small settlements in Darjeeling and Sikkim, and at the last Census of 1901, Yākhās were also returned from Assam.

No estimates are available about the number of speakers in Nepal. According to information collected for the purposes of this Survey the dialect was spoken by 1,250 individuals in Darjeeling. At the last Census of 1904, Yākhā was returned from the following districts:—

Bengal and feudatories			•					•	•				1,251	
Jalpaiguri .				•		•	•	•	•				68	
	jeeling		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•			i.123	
Sik	kim	•			•	•	•	•	•				65	
Assam	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•			•	115
											T	DTAL	•	1,366
														-

According to Sir Herbert Risley, the tribe call themselves yak-thomba or yakherds, with reference to the tradition that this was their characteristic occupation before they crossed the Himalaya into Eastern Nepal. Compare the denomination yāk-thūng-bā which the Limbus apply to themselves. Hodgson, on the other hand, is inclined to identify the Yākhās with the Yakkhas mentioned in the Mahāvamsa as living in the Himālayas.

The Yakhas, like the Jimdars, use the honorific title Rai to denote themselves.

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Two specimens and a list of Standard Words and Phrases have been received from Darjeeling. The handwriting in the list was so bad that some passages could not be restored with certainty. Such cases have been indicated by adding a query within parenthesis.

Pronunciation.—The vowels a, i, and u may be either long or short. The long and short sounds, however, sometimes interchange in the same word, e.g. in the plural suffix $ch\bar{i}$ or $ch\bar{i}$. It is therefore possible that Yākhā agrees with Tibetan in not possessing really long vowels.

E and yā are sometimes interchanged; thus, Tangkheng and Tangkhyang, heaven.

There are four gutturals, viz.: k, kh, g, and gh. The dialect also possesses corresponding sets of palatals, dentals, and labials, and probably also of cerebrals.

Ch interchanges with j and z in the plural suffix chi, ji or zi.

Concurrent consonants are sometimes assimilated; thus, kām-me instead of kām-be, on work; hip-pāng and hichchi, two; ten, village, but tem-be, in the village; ung-khi, vol. III, FART I.

you, but om- $b\bar{a}$ - $g\bar{a}$, your father's. It is not, however, possible to give any definite rules about the matter, the practice of the specimens being too inconsistent.

We have no information about the use of tones and accent. The visarga which occurs in words such as $nuk-n\bar{u}$, small, probably denotes the abrupt tone. The same is the case with the sign 'in Hodgson's list in words such as ap'tu, bring; $y\bar{u}k'su$, put down, and so forth.

Prefixes.—The prefixes \bar{a} , i, and u are of common occurrence; thus, \bar{a} - $g\bar{a}$ \bar{a} - $p\bar{a}$, my father; i- $chchy\bar{a}$ and u- $chchy\bar{a}$, his son. \bar{A} is originally the possessive pronoun of the first person, and i and u the corresponding forms of the third person. Compare om- $b\bar{a}$ - $g\bar{a}$ u- $b\bar{a}ng$ -be, your father-of his-house-in, in your father's house.

A similar use of prefixed personal pronouns is common in connected languages. For instance, it forms a very prominent feature of Limbu and of the so-called Kuki-Chin group.

Article.—There are no articles. The numeral ikko, one, is, however, often used with the meaning of an indefinite article; thus, $ikko \ y\bar{a}p\text{-}m\bar{i}$, a man.

Nouns.—Gender.—The natural gender is distinguished by using different words or by adding qualifying affixes. Thus, $b\bar{a}$, father; $m\bar{a}$, mother: on, horse; on i-mā-chā, mare: pik, bull; pik-mā, cow: $kuchum\bar{a}$, dog, $kutim\bar{a}$, bitch: $ipp\bar{a}$ $chh\bar{a}$, male goat; $im\bar{a}$ $chh\bar{a}$, female goat: $kiss\bar{a}$ darhe, male deer; $kiss\bar{a}$ $um\bar{a}$, female deer.

Number.—There are two numbers, the singular and the plural. The usual suffix of the plural is chi or zi; thus, bā-chi, fathers; on-zi, horses.

Case.—There are no separate suffixes to indicate the subject of intransitive verbs or the object. In $k\bar{a}$ - $ng\bar{a}$ uchchy \bar{a} -go mok-tu- $ng\bar{a}$, I have beaten his son, we apparently have a dative-accusative formed by adding go.

The subject of transitive verbs is put in the case of the agent, which is formed by adding the suffix $ng\bar{a}$. Thus, $p\bar{a}k - ng\bar{a}$ $lu-n\bar{a}$, younger-by said, the younger said. The same suffix is also used to denote the instrument; thus, $s\bar{a}k - ng\bar{a}$, from hunger.

The suffix $ng\bar{a}$ is closely related to the suffix $g\bar{a}$, which is used to form genitives; thus, $b\bar{a}$ - $g\bar{a}$, of a father. Instead of $g\bar{a}$ we find $ng\bar{a}$ in words such as \bar{a} - $ph\bar{a}$ - $ng\bar{a}$, of my uncle; $\bar{a}ni$ - $ng\bar{a}$, our. In such forms the initial consonant of the genitive suffix has perhaps coalesced with a preceding ng; compare $\bar{a}ning$, we. The governed noun is sometimes repeated before the governing noun by means of a pronominal prefix; thus, om- $b\bar{a}$ - $g\bar{a}$ u- $b\bar{a}ng$ -be, your-father's his-house-in, in your father's house.

There is no proper suffix of the dative; compare $k\bar{a}$ piyāng, me (-to) give. Hodgson mentions a suffix \bar{a} . It does not occur in the specimens, but is perhaps contained in the example ikko metnyung-mā \bar{a} -chiyā, to a daughter, in the list, though the initial \bar{a} in \bar{a} -chiyā can also be the pronominal prefix.

The locative-terminative is formed by adding be to the base or to the genitive; thus, $r\bar{a}j\bar{i}$ -be, in a country; tem-be, to the village. Note $k\bar{a}m$ -me instead of $k\bar{a}m$ -be, on work.

Other relations are indicated by adding postpositions. Such are bhandā, from; bāng, bangā, bongā, bung, bohung, hobung, hunu, from, out of; dekhi, from; hebe, to, towards; heksāng-be, at the back of, behind; keng, near; lāgi, for the sake of; nu, nung, nuhung, with; nuhmung, out of; sāmne, before, etc.

YĀKHĀ. 307

Adjectives.—Adjectives precede the words they qualify. They commonly end in $h\bar{a}$ or $n\bar{a}$; thus, $nu_{-n\bar{a}}$ $y\bar{a}p_{-n\bar{a}}$, a good man; $nv_{-h\bar{a}}$ $y\bar{a}p_{-n\bar{a}}$, good men. I do not know if it is more than a mere chance that the suffix $h\bar{a}$ in the list is used before plural nouns, while $n\bar{a}$ is used in the singular. Compare the plural suffix $h\bar{a}$ in Limbu.

The particle of comparison is apparently the Aryan bhandā; thus, rā-bhandā-cha ket-nā, anyone-from high, highest; kāh bhandā nu-nā, all from good, best. The writing of the list was so had that No. 231 could not be restored with certainty.

Numerals.—The first numerals are given in the list of words. The suffix chi, ji, which is added to most numerals, is perhaps identical with the plural suffix chi. In hip-pang nu-hā yāp-mi-chi, two good men, we apparently have a generic particle pang. Higher numbers appear to be counted in twenties; compare hi-long hichchi nga i-bong, twenties two and ten, fifty.

Pronouns—It has already been remarked that short forms of the personal pronouns are used as prefixes with the meaning of possessive pronouns. The following occur, \bar{a} , my; in, un, thy; i, u, his. Compare \bar{a} - $p\bar{a}$, my father; in-ning, thy name; omb \bar{a} , i.e. un- $b\bar{a}$, thy father; u- $g\bar{a}$ i- $p\bar{a}$ - $ng\bar{a}$, him-of his-father-by, by his father; \bar{a} - $p\bar{a}$ \bar{a} - $ph\bar{a}ng\bar{a}$ chiyā- $g\bar{a}$ u- $bih\bar{a}$ u- $ng\bar{a}$ -nu leksā-nā, me-of my-uncle's son-of his-marriage his-sister-with occurred, the son of my uncle is married to his sister. Om in om- $b\bar{a}$, thy father, has been derived from un under the influence of the following b.

The prefixed pronouns are the shortest forms of the full bases. Compare \bar{a} -ning and $k\bar{a}$ -ni, we; \bar{a} - $g\bar{a}$, my; \bar{a} , prefix of the first person.

The most common forms of the personal pronouns will be found in the table which follows:—

kā, I.	ing-khi, thou.	i-khi, u-khi, he.
$k\bar{a}$ - $ng\bar{a}$, by me.	inj-khi-ngā, ung- khi-ngā, by thee.	u-khi-ngā(ng), by him.
\bar{a} - $g\bar{a}$, \bar{a} -, my.	ingā, ungā, ing-khi- gā, ung-khi-gā, in-, thy.	i-gā, u-gā, i-, u-, his.
ā-ning, kā-ni, we.	ing-khi(-ni), in-ning- khik, you.	u-jing-khi, ikkā-zi, they.
ā-ni-ngā, kā-ni-ngā, by us.	ing-khi-ngā, by you.	u-ji-khi-ngā, by them.
ã-n i ngã, our.	ıngā, your.	u-jingā, their.

The suffix khi or khik in ing-khi, thou; i-khi, he, etc., is probably a demonstrative pronoun. It is sometimes also added to the pronoun of the first person; thus, $\bar{\alpha}$ -ning-khi, we. The suffixes of the plural are ni or ning, and ji or jing, and zi. The latter suffix is the same as that used with nouns.

Other pronouns of the third person are $hitn\bar{a}$, he; $hunn\bar{a}$, he; and according to Hodgson, $khen\bar{a}$, $yon\bar{a}$, $mon\bar{a}$, and $ton\bar{a}$, he. They can all be used as demonstrative pronouns. Other demonstratives are $n\bar{a}$, this; ni, this; yo, that; u, that; inu, that; $i-kh\bar{a}$, those, etc.

Interrogative pronouns are i-sā, who? i, i-jeti, i-lā, what? hene, where? in-khoi, how much, how many? Indefinite pronouns are effected by adding chā to interrogatives; thus, i-sā-ngā-cha, by anyone; i-je-ti-chā, anything; hene-chā, anywhere; kaile-chā, ever. vol. III, fart I.

The interrogative pronouns are also used as relatives; thus, $w\bar{a}kkhu$ - $w\bar{a}$ -be $is\bar{a}$ - $ng\bar{a}$ u- $kh\bar{i}$ $p\bar{a}k$ -su- $n\bar{a}$, with a citizen who sent him; $jetik\bar{a}$ \bar{a} - $g\bar{a}$ $waitn\bar{a}$ $k\bar{a}k$ ung-khi- $g\bar{a}$, what mine is, all thine, all that is mine is thine. Such phrases are due to the influence of Aryan vernaculars. The Aryan relative jo is used in $kholt\bar{a}$ -be-hunu jo $ph\bar{a}k$ - $ch\bar{i}$ - $ng\bar{a}$ cho- $w\bar{a}$ - $ch\bar{i}$, from the husks which the swine ate.

Verbs.—The verb is in all essential features a noun. The subject of transitive verbs is put in the case of the agent, which looks like a modified form of the genitive. The person of the subject is not regularly distinguished in the verb. There are only some indications of a tendency to add affixes denoting the subject. Thus, a ng or $ng\bar{a}$ is sometimes added in the first, and a ka or ga in the second person. Compare $n\bar{a}$ - $ng\bar{a}$, am; chugu- $ng\bar{a}$, I did; $n\bar{a}k$ - $k\bar{a}$, art; khek- $k\bar{a}$, goest. These affixes are inserted before the copula; thus, khem-me- $ng\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{a}$, going-in-I-am, I shall go; khem-me-ka- $n\bar{a}$, going-in-thouart, thou wilt go. This state of affairs agrees with the practice in Mundā languages. It is not, however, certain that $ng\bar{a}$ and ka are in reality personal affixes, our materials not being sufficient for settling the question. Compare u-jing-khik- $ng\bar{a}$ $mokk\bar{a}$, they beat.

The verb is also shown to be a noun by the fact that plural suffixes can be added. Thus, cho-wā-chi, they ate; wae-hā-zi, they were; i-khā-zi nāe-khā, they are; compare i-khā, those.

Verb substantive.—Several bases are used as a verb substantive. The most common ones are $n\bar{a}$, i, wai and wait, leng, $leks\bar{a}$, and so on. The base ho in $m\bar{a}$ -ho, is it not? is probably Aryan.

The materials available are not sufficient for giving a full sketch of the conjugation of the verb substantive, the more so because the bad handwriting of the list has made it impossible to arrive at certainty about the real form in all cases.

Finite verb.—The conjugation of finite verbs is apparently comparatively simple. It is not, however, possible to decide how far the actual state of affairs is represented in the texts.

Present time.—The base alone is sometimes used with the meaning of a present; thus, $k\bar{a}$ \bar{i} , I am; $k\bar{a}$ $khek-ng\bar{a}$, I go. The copula $n\bar{a}$, is, is often added; thus, wait- $n\bar{a}$, is; wai- $ka-n\bar{a}$, art.

Other forms of the present are apparently participles. A present participle ending in $w\bar{a}$, corresponding to Tibetan pa, is used in forms such as $yung-yung-w\bar{a}-n\bar{a}$, sitting is, he is sitting; $hesu-w\bar{a}-ka-n\bar{a}$, able thou art.

Another suffix of a similar participle is $h\bar{a}$; compare the suffix $h\bar{a}$ used with adjectives. Thus, $wae-h\bar{a}-chi$, being-ones, they are; $\bar{a}-ning\ n\bar{a}-h\bar{a}-i$, we being are, we are.

A participle ending in me seems to occur in $yung-me-n\bar{a}$, he lives. The suffix me is perhaps connected with the locative suffix be.

The suffix tu is mok-tu, (he) beats, (you) beat; $mok-tu-g\bar{a}$, beatest, perhaps denotes an object of the third person. It has an m added in forms such as mok-tum, we beat; $tok-tum-n\bar{a}$, he is found; compare the suffix m which is used in several plural forms of the verb in Limbu.

Isolated forms are $n\bar{a}kk\bar{a}$, thou art; $khek-k\bar{a}$, thou goest; $mokk\bar{a}$, they beat; $n\bar{a}k\bar{u}$, you are; $n\bar{a}ekk\bar{a}$, they are; mokneng, I strike. They only occur in the list of words.

Past time.—Several of the forms mentioned above are also used with the meaning of a past. The base alone is apparently used in forms such as *chugu-ngā*, I did. The

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copula $n\bar{a}$ is commonly added; thus, $lu-n\bar{a}$, he said; $l\bar{a}m\bar{a}-ng-n\bar{a}$, I have walked; $khy\bar{a}-k\bar{a}-n\bar{a}$, wentest. The suffixes $w\bar{a}$, $h\bar{a}$, and tu or du occur in forms such as $cho-w\bar{a}-chi$, they ate; $lu-w\bar{a}-n\bar{a}$, he said; $t\bar{a}e-w\bar{a}-n\bar{a}$, has come; $chuyu-w\bar{a}-ng-n\bar{a}$, I have done; $leks\bar{a}-h\bar{a}$, occurred; $mok-tu-ng\bar{a}$, I have beaten; $sim-du-n\bar{a}$, he asked.

A suffix $s\bar{a}$, se occurs in forms such as $wai-s\bar{a}$ and $wai-s\bar{a}-n\bar{a}$, was; $lek-s\bar{a}-n\bar{a}$, $lek-se-n\bar{a}$, and $lek-sey\bar{a}-n\bar{a}$, became. It also occurs in forms such as $lek-s\bar{a}$, be, and is perhaps the suffix of a past verbal noun or participle.

The suffix $s\bar{a}$ is perhaps connected with su, which is often used in order to form a past tense; thus, $lept\bar{a}-h\bar{a}k-su$, he had wasted; $p\bar{a}k-su-n\bar{a}$, he sent; si-suk-su-no, killedest; $tok-tu-su-n\bar{a}$, he was found. Compare the final \bar{u} denoting an object of the third person singular in Limbu.

Isolated forms are $l\bar{a}gyo$, he began; chucāntyo, he wanted. They are Aryan loans. Future.—The participle ending in me is commonly used to form a future; thus, khem-me-ngā-nā, I shall go; tā-me-ng-nā, I shall come; khem-me-ka-nā, thou wilt go. Such forms do not differ from the present. The same is the case with forms such as kā leng-ngā, I shall be; lu-wā-ngā-nā, I shall say; and perhaps also kā mok-twāng-ngā, I shall beat.

The suffix m in chā-m, we will eat; chugu-m, we will make (merry), is perhaps connected with me.

Forms such as $l\bar{a}s\bar{a}$ -khep-mā par- $l\bar{a}$, to-return is-required, I will return; khusi chug-mā-nu wai-nā, merry making-for is, we should make merry; $t\bar{a}r$ -nā par-chha, coming is required, one should come, are not futures. I am not able to analyse them properly.

Imperative.—The base alone is commonly used as an imperative; thus, pi, give. A suffix \bar{a} is often added; thus, $yung-\bar{a}$, sit; $\bar{a}b\bar{a}$, come; $pug\bar{a}$, stand; $siy\bar{a}$, die. In $k\bar{a}$ $piy\bar{a}ng$, give me, $\bar{a}ng$ is used instead. The final ng is perhaps a pronominal suffix denoting an object of the first person singular.

The suffixes tu, du, and su are used in forms such as mok-tu, beat; thun-du, bind; tak-su, draw. They perhaps denote the object.

Tā is used instead of tu in luk-tā, run.

A suffix nu is used in $w\bar{a}$ - $m\bar{a}$ -pi-nu, put on; $\bar{a}p$ - $t\bar{a}$ -nu, bring. It is probably a postposition meaning 'in order to,' 'for.'

Chuk- $m\bar{a}$ -leng-di- $n\bar{i}$, please make, literally seems to mean 'to make is.' Compare yung- $m\bar{a}$ leng-di, to sit is, I should be.

The negative imperative is formed by adding n to the base; thus, $khy\bar{a}$ -n, do not go; chugu-n, do not do.

Verbal nouns.—The most usual verbal noun is formed by adding the suffix $m\bar{a}$; thus, $w\bar{a}-m\bar{a}$, to live; $chuk-m\bar{a}$, to do; $ch\bar{a}-m\bar{a}$, food. $Mok-m\bar{a}-g\bar{a}$, to beat, and $mok-m\bar{a}-gg\bar{a}$, heating, are the genitive and the instrumental, respectively, of this form.

Other verbal nouns are formed by adding \bar{a} , $n\bar{a}$ or $t\bar{a}$; thus, $uni-\bar{a}$, to go; $wet-n\bar{a}$, to be; $mok-t\bar{a}$ hesu-ng, to beat can-I, I may beat.

In chara-chuk-nu, in order to feed, we have the suffix nu which is also used in the imperative.

Participles.—It has already been mentioned that several participles are apparently used in order to form the finite tenses. Forms such as lek-sā-wā, were; ā-ning nā-hā-i.

we being-are, we are; $yung-me-n\bar{a}$, being-is, he lives, seem to contain participles, or rather verbal nouns, ending in $w\bar{a}$, $h\bar{a}$, me, respectively. Forms such as $mok-m\bar{a}-ng\bar{a}$, beating, have also been mentioned and explained as cases of the verbal noun.

As in other connected forms of speech participles are also formed by adding suffixes to a verbal noun which is identical with the base; thus, sohung, seeing-from, having seen.

Siyā-rok, dead, seems to mean 'dying like' and to contain a verbal noun ending in \bar{a} . In $siy\bar{a}$ -rok-mā, dead, the suffix $m\bar{a}$ has been added. It is the same suffix as that used in the formation of verbal nouns.

 $M\bar{a}$ - $s\bar{a}b$ - $w\bar{a}$ - $r\bar{r}$, lost, is formed by adding the suffix $w\bar{a}$ mentioned above and a particle $r\bar{r}$, which is perhaps an emphatic suffix.

A suffix nu occurs in $we-nu-ch\bar{a}$, being; $yem-nu-n\bar{a}$, fatted. The latter word contains the suffix $n\bar{a}$ which seems to be the usual suffix of the relative participle. Compare the suffix $n\bar{a}$ used with adjectives.

A form such as sohung, seeing from, having seen, can be considered as a conjunctive participle. The suffix is hung, which probably means 'from.'

In baila-chugu-hung-ra, together-making-on, having gathered, ra has been added. This ra is probably an intensifying or indefinite particle related to the $r\bar{\imath}$ which has been mentioned above.

The most common suffix of the conjunctive participle is, however, $n\bar{a}$; thus, chugunā, having done. Ba can be added; thus, $luk-t\bar{a}-n\bar{a}-ra$, having run.

Passive voice.—There is no passive voice. Kā mok-tā chāe-ng-nā, I am beaten, literally means 'I beating eating-I-am.'

Negative verb.—The negative verb is apparently formed by suffixing n and adding $n\bar{a}$, is; thus, $w\bar{a}mme-nga-n-n\bar{a}$, I will not remain. $Lek-se-w\bar{a}-n\bar{a}$, did not pass, must in that case be a slip instead of $lek-se-w\bar{a}-n-n\bar{a}$. Compare $t\bar{a}e-w\bar{a}-n\bar{a}$, he has come. In $kh\bar{a}k-s\bar{a}-ng-ng\bar{a}$, he did not want, ng is apparently used instead. In $pi-yo-n-n\bar{a}$, did not give; the negative n is preceded by yo. In $pi-yo-n\bar{a}$, didst not give, this yo is used alone, if $pi-yo-n\bar{a}$ is not a slip of the pen for $pi-yo-n-n\bar{a}$. Hodgson states that the negative particle is an infix ni or nin. It is probable that this ni is identical with the n just mentioned. If that be the case, the negative verb is formed by adding the negative verb substantive formed by prefixing n to the copula $n\bar{a}$. $M\bar{a}-n-n\bar{a}$, it is not, seems to contain a double negative, the particle $m\bar{a}$ and n.

Interrogative particle.—There is apparently an interrogative particle $l\bar{a}$; thus, $i-l\bar{a}$, what? $n\bar{a}$ on inkhok $th\bar{a}pp\bar{a}-l\bar{a}$, this horse how old? Another particle i is used in disjunctive questions; thus, $cho-ko-n\bar{a}-i$ $m\bar{a}n-n\bar{a}-i$, have you eaten or not?

Order of words.—The usual order of words is subject, object, verb.

For further details the student is referred to the specimens which follow. The first is a version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son, and the second is a conversation with a villager. Both have been received from Darjeeling. A list of Standard Words and Phrases will be found on pp. 408 and ff.

[No. 30.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

SPECIMEN I.

(DISTRICT DARJEELING.)

Ikko yāpmī-gā hichchi ichchyā waisā. U-gā-mā-dekhī pāk-nā-ngā One man-of two his-sons were. Them-among-from younger-by 'e lu-nā, ā-po, sampati nuhmag ā-gā angsa-chahi kā piyang.' Lo 'O my-father, property from share my me give.' Then u-khī-ngā u-khī-ngā-chī āpnu sampati hāsu-bi-na. Pvāk din lekse-wā-nā, him-by them-to own property divided. Many days passed-not, kāk pāk-nā ichchhe batlā chugu-hung-ra māngdu-nā rājīpatā-be khewā-nā alltogether his-son having-made far country-to wahã hāku luchāpan chuguwā-nā din bitwa-nai āpnu sampati and there riotousness doing daysspending own property leptā-hāk-su-nā. Jaba u-khī-ngā kāk leptā-hāk-su, taba 11 rājī-be wasted. When him-by allwasted. then that country-in achor anikāl leksā-hā. Taba u-khī kangal lekse-khewā-nā. Ani u-khī mighty famine became. Then he destitute to-be-began. And he khvā-nā. rāiī-be wākkhu-wā-be ikko-gā be wā-mā lagyo, isā-ngā went, that country-in citizens-in one-of with to-live began, whom-by u-khī āpnu khet-be phäk chārā-chuk-nu pāk-su-nā. Ani u-khi-ngā п him field-in swine to-graze sent. And him-by those knolta-be-hunu phāk-chī-ngā cho-wā-chī, io āpnu pet bharā-mā chuwāntyo, husks-in-from which swine-by ate, own belly to-fill wanted, ani isā-ngā-chī pani u-khī i-je-tī-chā pivonnā. Taba n-khī chet him and anyone-by even anything gave-not. Then to-him 861186 u-khī-ngā lu-nā, lekse-vā-nā, ani ʻā-gā ā-pā-gā nā-khoi khetālā-chī-gā andhim-by 'my my-father-of how-many became. said, servants-of chāleppā leksā-wā. pyāk ăni kā sāk-ngā mārā-chungme-ngā-nā. Ka and I bread 10a8. hunger-with dying-am. 7 khem-me-ngā-nā ani u-khī-nung luwā-ngā-nā. pung-me-ngā-ra ā-gā ā-pā-hebe my my-father-to rising go-will and him-to say-will. kā-ngā Tāng-kheng-be ani ā-pā. ing-khi-be sāmne pāp chugu-ngā. "O my-father, me-by Heaven-to and you-to before did. $K\bar{a}$ pherī ung-khi-kā ichchvä lup-mā rokhiptu-ngā-mā mānnā. Kā I again your 80n to-say worthy am-not. Мe

ing-khī-gā khetālā-be bohung ikko chuk-mā-leng-di-nī." Taba u-khī pugā-nā your servants-in from one make-please." Then he arose āpnu ā-pā hebe khvā-nā. Tara n-khī wai-sā-nā, u-gā his-own But father to went. he (far-off) was, his i-pā-ngā sohung davā chugu-nā. ani luk-ta-nā-ra u-gā gāl ā-be father-by having-seen pitu made. and running his neck-on tāsā-chugu-nā ukhi-ngā chuppā chugu-nā. Ichchyā-ngā u-khī-nu lu-nā. embracing-doing him-by kissdid.The-son-by him-with said.'ye ā-pā, kā-ngā Tāngkhyāng-be ani ing-khi-kā sāmne pāp chugu-nā. 0 father, ne-by Heaven-to and you-of before sindid. pheri ing-khi-gā Ani chvā lup-mā mānnā.' Tara āpā-ngā āpnu And again your to-say 80n am-not. Butfather-by own chākar-chī-hobung lu-nā. 'kāk bhandā nu-nā te nikla-chugu-hung-ra servants-to said. 'all from good clothhaving-brought u-khī wā-mā-pi; muk-be chhen, ani u-gā ani lang-be jutā wā-mā-pi-nu. him put-on; his and hand-on ring, and feet-on shoes put. pik Ani vem-nu-nā uchehyā āp-tā-nu si-su. Ani ani-ngā chām ani And fatted cow its-young-one bring kill. And us-by will-eat and Irok-bohung, ānand chugu-m. nā ā-gā achchyā siyarok. pheri merriment will-make. What-for, thismy my-80n was-dead, again ningā-nā : māsā-khiyā-nā-ra, pherī tok-tu-nā.' Taba u-chī-khe-ngā khusi revived: having-been-lost, againwas-found.' Then them-by happy ānand chugu-nā. merriment made.

merriment made.

U-gā tum-nā uchchyā khet-be wai-sā-nā. Jaba u-khi tāmennā pāng-gā His elder his-80n field-in was. When ħе coming house-of keng tāe-nā, taba bāzā nung lāktā-mā sor khep-su-nā. Ani u-khi-ngā near came. the music with dancing sound heard. And him-by dās-be bohung ikko āpnu keng kā-nā. ani sim-du-nā, 'nã ijeti?' O1D12 slaves-in from one near called. and asked. 'this what?' U-khi-ngā u-khi lu-nā, 'ing-khi-gā nunchhā tāye-wā-nā; ani ing-khi-gā Him-by him-to said. 'your brother come-is: and your pābā-ngā yem-nu-nā pik uch-chhyā si-su-nā, irok-hong u-khi nuroknā father-by fatted COLD its-young-one killed, because him safe. tok-tu-su-nā.' Tara ukhi-ngā luk-khok-mā chuguk-su-nā ani bhitra uniā found.' But him-by anger madeand inside to-go khāksang-ngā. U-khi-be u-gā pābā **bāir**ā tāe-nā. u-khi mānā-chug-niā. Therefore wanted-not. his father outside came. him entreated. U-khi-ngā u-pā nung luwā-nā, ' kā soh, nākhok barsa bohung Him-by his-father to said. $^{\iota}I$ 8ee, 80-many years since ung-khi-gā sewā. chugu-wāng-nā; ani kaile-chā ing-khi-gā chegyā **VOUT** service did: and ever your order

leptā-hāk-sung-mānnā. Ani ung-khi-ngā kā kaile-chā ikko meduhā-kā transgressed-not. And ขอน-ขึบ me ever one goat-of uchchvā-chā pivo-nā. ā-cā kām-nibā nuhung chuk-ms. ānand Tara kid-even gavest-not. friends with merriment to-make. Rut my ang-khi-gā nā chvā isā besvā nung ung-khi-gā kāk sampati chāi-nā. this who harlots with all vour 8012 vour property devoured. iaba ni-ghari-be tāe-na. ung-khi-nga u-gā lāgī vem-nu-nā pik when that-time-at fatted came. บอน-อิบ him-of sake-for com achchyā, uchchya si-suk-su-no.' Pābā-ngā u-khi luk-su-nā. 'he ung-khi 0 its-calf killedest. Father-by him-to said. my-80n, 404 kāk kā-nung sadhai wai-ka-na. ani ietikā ā-gā wait-nă. ung-khi-gā always what allme-with are. and mine is. vours Tara khusi chug-mā-nu-wāi-na, irok-bhane nā mā-ho? ung-khi-gā nunchha is-it-not? But merry making-should-be, this because your brother sivārok-mā wai-sā-nā, khyā-wā-nā. pheri hing-ngā-rā-nā; māsāb-wā-rī pheri dead lost was. again revived: gone-was. again tok-tum-nā. is-found.

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[No. 31.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

YĀKHĀ.

SPECIMEN II.

(DISTRICT DARJEELING.)

 $K\bar{a}$ Chainpur-be wākhubā nā-ngā, ani Dār-jī-ling-be tāe-wā-nā. bis I Chainpur-in resident Darjiling-in have-come, am. and twenty lekse-nā. barkha Chainpur bohung Dār-jī-ling yechchi din lāmbu wāit-nā. years from passed. Chainpur Darjiling eight days way is. Tāp-mā kherī Dār-jī-ling roknā lāmbu mānnā. Nuh-nā lāmbu bung Coming in Darjiling like roadnot-is. Small road from tār-nā-par-chha. Dār-jī-ling Aningā tem rok \dim mānnā. Alik to-come-is-necessary. Our villagelike Darjiling not-is. Few days wā-mā purla pheri tem-be lāsā-khep-mā par-lā. Hākku pyāk din living on again village-to to-return is-required. Now many days wām-me-ngan-nā. ā-gā pābā Pāng-be lichi tum-nā āpphu-chī māmā ani stay-will-not. House-in my father mother andfour elderbrothers wait-na. Kak-ka behā leksā-nā. Kak-nuhung ibong chya-chī wait-na. All-of marriage occurred. All-with ten 80N8 are. hene Ung-khi wākhubā? Hākku ung-khi hene khem-me-ka-nā? You where resident? Now you where go-will? Ung-khi-ngā chā-mā cho-ko-nāi mānnāi? Henning ung-khi kām-me You-by food ate-or or-not? When you work-to khem-me-ka-nā? Ingkhoï din bong uche wāi-ka-nā? T kām go-will? How-many dayssince here are? What work chuk-mā hesu-wā-ka-nā? Ung-khi-gā pang īng-khoī māng-du-nā? Hākku ďΩ can? Your house how far-is? Now ing-khi i-be khem-me-ka-nā? Pherī ing-khi henning tā-me-ka-nā? where 404 go-will? Again you when come-will? Lichi din-be nehe-mā tā-meng-nā. Four days-in will-come. here Ung-khi hene-chā-māng khyān. Hani ābā. Dhilo chugun. You anywhere do-not-go. Quickly come. Delay do-not-make. Hanī cho. Chehva chugun. Quickly eat. Talk do-not-make.

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FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

I am a citizen of Chainpur, and I came to Darjiling about twenty years ago. It is a week's journey from Chainpur to Darjiling. The roads are different from those in Darjiling, and it is necessary to follow a small path. Our village is also different from Darjiling. In a few days I shall go back to my village, and I shall not stay here much longer. My father and mother and four elder brothers are at home. They are all married, and they have ten sons all counted. Where are you living? Where are you going? Have you dined or not? When are you going to work? How long have you lived here? What is your occupation? How far is it to your house? Where are you going? When are you coming back?

I shall come back in four days.

Do not go away. Come quickly. Do not delay. Eat quickly. Do not talk.

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KHAMBU.

The Khambus are one of the fighting tribes of Nepal. They have been described by Hodgson under the head of Kirāntī. Their country is sometimes called 'nō lākh Kirānt.' This phrase has been interpreted to mean that a household tax, at two annas per family, yielded nine hundred thousand annas, but should probably be understood as an exaggerated estimate of the number of villages included. Compare the remarks by Dr. Fleet in the Bombay Gazetteer, vol. i, Part ii, p. 298, Note?

Hodgson states that the Kirānt country comprises the districts inhabited by the Khambus and Limbus, respectively. The former, the so-called Khambuwān, is situated between the Sun Kosi and the Arun; the latter, the so-called Limbuwān, between the Arun and the Singilela Range. Mr. Gait, on the other hand, informs us that, according to an educated Yākhā whom he has consulted, the Khambus are not Kirāntis. Compare the remarks in the introduction to this sub-group on p. 274 above.

The Khambus live to the north-east of the Jimdars and Yakhas, on the southern spurs of the Himalayas. Their name is dialectically pronounced Khwombu. They speak different dialects, and Hodgson has published vocabularies of several of them, and given a full grammatical description of the Bahing dialect.

It has been mentioned in the introduction to this group that Hodgson divided the country inhabited by the Khambus into three parts—

- 1. Wallo Kirānt or Hither Kirānt, from the Sunkosi to the Likhu;
- 2. Majh Kirant or Middle Kirant, from Likhu to Arun; and
- 3. Pallo Kirānt or Further Kirānt, from the Arun to the Mechi and the Singilela ridge. These are Khas terms and refer to the Khas metropolis in the valley of Nepal proper.

The so-called Wallo Kirānt is the home of the Löhöröng and Chhingtang septs of Khambus.

A long series of minor tribes lives in the so-called Majh Kirant, viz., the Rung-chhenbung, Rodong, Dungmali, Khaling, Dumi, Sangpang, Balali, Lambichhong, Bahing, Thulung, Kulung, Waling, and Nachhereng septs.

In the so-called Pallo Kirant we finally find the Chourasya Khambus.

All these dialects are closely related. Most of them are, however, unsatisfactorily known, and it is impossible to class them with certainty. Hodgson classed Rüngchhenbüng, Chhingtang, Waling, and Lambichhong as a separate group, which he called Bontāwā, and he further remarked that Lambichhong can be considered as a sub-division of Waling. The so-called Bontāwā dialects are closely connected with Düngmālī, Löhöröng, Sāngpāng, and Bālāli. All these forms of Khambu can therefore be classed as one separate group. The Rödong, Nāchherēng, Kūlung, Bāhing, Thūlung, and Chourasya dialects connect this group with Dūmi and Khāling. Bāhing is most closely connected with Thūlung. It has been fully dealt with by Hodgson, and a sketch of its grammar will be given in what follows.

Two specimens and a list of Standard Words and Phrases in Khambu have been forwarded from Darjeeling. They represent a dialect which corresponds to Hodgson's Külung. Another set of specimens have been forwarded as illustrations of the dialect of the Rais. In most characteristics it is the same dialect as that described by Hodgson under the head of Dūmi.

The various Khambu dialects will be dealt with in what follows. In the first place the Khambu specimens forwarded from Darjeeling will be reproduced and described. A detailed sketch of the Bahing dialect, based on the materials published by Hodgson will follow, and short notes on the remaining dialects mentioned by Hodgson will be added. Lastly the specimens forwarded under the head of Rāi will be printed.

Khambus have emigrated from their home in Nepal into Sikkim and Darjeeling.

Number of speakers.

At the last Census of 1901, they were also returned from Jalpaiguri and from Assam.

No information about the number of Khambus in Nepal has been forthcoming. The number of speakers in those districts which fall within the scope of this Survey has been estimated as follows:—

Darjeeling														
Sikkim	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	8,000
											To	TAL	•	41,490

At the last Census of 1901, the dialect was returned from the following districts:— Bengal Presidency—

43,390 564 Toral 43,954

It is impossible to say whether all the speakers of Khambu in the Bengal Presidency use the same dialect. The two specimens printed below, which have been forwarded from Darjeeling, apparently represent the dialect which Hodgson called Külung.

AUTHORITIES-

Hodgson, B. H.,—On the Aborigines of the Sub-Himalayas. Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. xvi, Part ii, 1847, pp. 1235 and ff. Reprinted in Selections from the Records of the Government of Bengal. No. xxvii, Calcutta 1857, pp. 126 and ff., and in Hodgson's Essays on the Languages, Literature, and Religion of Nepal and Tibet. London, 1874, Pt. ii. pp. 29 and ff. In the reprint the paper is entitled On the Aborigines of the Himalaya.

"—Comparative Vocabulary of the several Languages (Dialects) of the celebrated People called Kirántis, now occupying the Eastern-most province of the Kingdom of Népal, or the basin of the river Arun, which province is named after them Kiránt. Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. xxvi, 1857, pp. 333 and ff. Reprinted in Miscellaneous Essays on Indian Subjects. London, 1880, Vol. I, pp. 176 and ff., 320 and ff. Contains vocabularies of the various dialects and a Bāhing grammar.

Branes, J.,—Outlines of Indian Philology, with a map showing the distribution of Indian Languages.

Calcutta, 1867. Contains numerals in Kirāntā, etc.

HUNTER, W. W.,—A Comparative Dictionary of the Languages of India and High Asia. London, 1868. Dalton, E. T.,—Descriptive Ethnology of Bengal. Calcutta, 1872. Contains a Kiranti vocabulary.

The remarks on Khambu grammar which follow are entirely based on the materials forwarded for the purposes of this Survey, viz., two specimens and a list of Standard Words and Phrases.

Pronunciation.—The vowels a, i, and u occur both as long and as short. The difference between long and short vowels does not appear to be great.

Final vowels are sometimes dropped; thus, $kong\bar{a}$ and kong, I; mi and m, of; $p-k\bar{a}$, from in, compare pi, in, and so forth.

O and u, e and i, respectively, are sometimes interchanged; thus, om and um, his; o-mi, my; $\bar{a}s$ -me, whose?

The dialect possesses sets of gutturals, palatals, dentals, and labials. Each set consists of hard and soft sounds, with and without aspiration. A cerebral t occurs in words such as $kh\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{a}$ -nu, going. It is interchangeable with the dental t, and we must probably infer that there is only one t, pronounced as a semi-dental.

B is used instead of p in $b\bar{a}ri$ -b, in the fields.

We have no information about the use of tones and accent. Hodgson mentions the pausing and the abrupt tones as very pronounced in some Khambu dialects. The abrupt tone is probably meant in cases where a visarga is written, such as roh, a slave; pih, a cow.

Prefixes.—Most prefixes in use in Khambu are abbreviated forms of the personal pronouns. They are, however, sometimes used as simple formatives without a pronominal meaning; thus, o- $chh\bar{a}$, son, lit. my son; $\bar{a}m$ -long, foot, lit. thy foot. Compare the remarks under the head of pronouns, below.

A prefix i, with uncertain meaning, occurs in words such as i-jina and jina, merry; i-hop-mi-si, mine own; hop-mi, own. Compare the Yakhā prefix of the third person.

Articles.—There are no articles. The numeral 'one' is often used as an indefinite article; thus, i-bom mimchhā, a daughter; i-bom pā, a father. Forms such as ilpo-missi, eli missi, a man, show that the numeral can be combined with various generic suffixes. Our materials are not, however, sufficient for giving a list of such suffixes and their meaning.

Nouns—Gender.—The natural gender is distinguished in the common way by using different words or by adding suffixes. Thus, $p\bar{a}$, father; $m\bar{a}$, mother: $chh\bar{a}ng\bar{a}r\bar{a}-p\bar{a}$, he-goat; $chh\bar{a}ng\bar{a}r\bar{a}-m\bar{a}$, she-goat: $kheb-\bar{a}$, dog; khep-chi, bitch: $ghor\bar{a}$, horse; ghori, mare: khissi $d\bar{a}re$, a male deer: khis $om-m\bar{a}$, a female deer.

Number.—There are two numbers, the singular and the plural. The suffix of the plural is chi; thus, o-bu-chi, my elder brothers. Instead of chi we find si in beshye-si- $k\bar{a}$, with harlots. A plural suffix $h\bar{a}$ seems to occur in $ng\bar{a}li$ nop- $h\bar{a}$ -m, to good men. Compare Limbu. There are no traces in the materials available of a dual.

Case.—The base alone, without any suffix, is used to denote the subject of intransitive verbs, and the object. It sometimes also occurs as the subject of transitive verbs; thus, $\bar{a}m$ - $p\bar{a}$ set-tu, thy-father killed. The subject of such verbs is, however, commonly put in the case of the agent, which is formed by adding the suffix \bar{a} ; thus, $p\bar{a}$ - \bar{a} $pik\bar{a}$, the father-by said. The same form is also used as an instrumental; thus, ribo- $w\bar{a}$, (bind him) with ropes.

The suffix \bar{a} is also used to form a dative; thus, $p\bar{a}$ - \bar{a} , to the father.

The usual suffix of the locative and terminative is $p\bar{a}$, pi, or b; thus, $th\bar{a}mpu-p\bar{a}$, in the country; thim-pi, in the house; $b\bar{a}ri-b$, in the fields. Another suffix of the terminative is to; thus, am-dos-to, upon his back. The suffix to is often also used with the meaning of a locative; thus, $th\bar{a}mpu-to$, in the country; $tup\bar{a}-to$, among the citizens.

The suffix of the ablative is $k\bar{a}$; thus, $t\bar{a}to-k\bar{a}$, from years; $kholong-pi-k\bar{a}$, from among all, $umsip-p\bar{a}-k\bar{a}$, from the husks; $sewaite-chi-p-k\bar{a}$, from among the servants. Another ablative suffix is $khon\bar{a}$; thus, $kheta-l\bar{a}-p\bar{\imath}-khon\bar{a}$, from among the servants.

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The suffix of the genitive is mi; thus, $p\bar{a}$ -mi, of a father. The final i is often dropped, thus, $khet\bar{a}l\bar{a}$ -chi-m, of the servants. The governed noun is commonly repeated by means of a pronominal prefix before the governing noun; thus, o-mi o-hai, me-of my-share; $\bar{a}m$ -mi $\bar{a}m$ - $chh\bar{a}$, thee-of thy-son. The genitive suffix is often dispensed with; thus, eli missi $\bar{a}m$ - $chh\bar{a}$, one man his-sons, one man's sons.

Other relations are indicated by means of postpositions. Such are dos-pa, behind; lais-pi, before; lo, with; lagi, for; dok-pu, under; kā, with, etc.

Adjectives.—Adjectives sometimes precede and sometimes follow the noun they qualify. A common suffix used after adjectives is $p\bar{a}$, which becomes p before the plural suffix chi. Thus, $omlo-p\bar{a}$ $ghor\bar{a}ng$ zin, the white horse's saddle; $ng\bar{a}li$ no-p-chi, men good-ones, good men. The suffix $p\bar{a}$ is sometimes dropped; thus, ilpo $ng\bar{a}li$ $no-pi-k\bar{a}$, from a good man; compare $no-p\bar{a}$, good.

Comparison is effected by putting the compared noun in the ablative; thus, amnechhe-p-kā mimchhā-p-kā nechho dungre-pe, his-elder-sister-than woman-than brother tall-is, his brother is taller than his sister; kholong-pi-kā ngali no-pā teī, all-in-from much good cloth, best cloth.

Numerals.—The first numerals are given in the list of words. They precede the word they qualify. The suffix chi in ngich-chi, two; sup-chi, three, etc., is probably the usual plural suffix. The suffixes bum, po, li, etc., in i-bum, one; ngip-po, two; e-li, one; i-l-po, one, etc., are probably generic particles. We have not, however, sufficient materials for laying down definite rules about their use. Compare the remarks under the head of Bāhing on p. 329 below.

The original form of the numeral 'one' is apparently ik. Compare ik-pong, ten; ik- $kh\bar{a}lo$, one score, twenty. Higher numerals were apparently formerly counted in twenties. Compare $ng\bar{a}k$ -khal, five twenties, hundred. Aryan loan-words are now also used; thus, $pach\bar{a}s$, fifty.

Pronouns.—The following are the personal pronouns:—

kongā, kong, I. ānā, thou. nā, kho, khungko, khallu, he.
o-mi, o, my. ām-mi, ām, e, thy. kho-mi, khasu, um, om, am, o, his.
kei, we. ān-ni, you. kho-chi, khas, they.
i-mi, cur. ān-ni-mi, your. kho-chi-mi, their.

Several other forms occur. The usual case suffixes are contained in forms such as $kei-y\bar{a}$, by us; $\bar{a}n\bar{a}-\bar{a}$, by thee, etc. According to Hodgson most Khambu dialects possess a dual in addition to the singular and the plural. There are no traces of this third number in the materials available.

Other Khambu dialects possess a double set of dual and plural forms of the pronoun of the first person, one including and another excluding the person addressed. Thus, Bāhing gōi, I and you; gō-ku, I and they. The form kei in the table apparently corresponds to Bāhing gōi. I-mi, our, corresponds to the inclusive form i-ke, my and your, in Bāhing. The list of words contains another form o-khi-pi, of us, which seems to be the corresponding exclusive form. Compare Bāhing wa-ke, my and their; Kūlung wokki-mi, our.

The form $\bar{a}m-mi$, thou, in the list, is perhaps a slip of the pen for $\bar{a}m-ni$; compare Kūlung $\bar{a}mni-mi$, your. The form $\bar{a}m$, thy, is simply the abbreviated $\bar{a}m-mi$, thy. It sometimes also occurs with the meaning of a possessive pronoun of the third person.

In that case it is interchangeable with om and um, and is sometimes written with a short a Compare Külung wa.

The form e, thy, in e-dos-pa, behind you, corresponds to Bahing i, thy.

The various forms of the third person are probably all demonstrative pronouns. The final ko in khung-ko, he, is an intensifying addition. Compare also $n\bar{a}-ko$, him; $n\bar{a}-ko-p-k\bar{a}$, from him. Another similar addition is do or $d\bar{a}$ in $kho-d\bar{a}$ and kho-do, him. The same is perhaps the case with su, $s\bar{a}$ in kha-su, his; $kho-s\bar{a}$, him; $kho-s\bar{a}-\bar{a}$, by him.

Khongāng, his own, is perhaps connected with kho, he. The same base is perhaps contained in honaiā, to him.

Other forms of the third person are $kho-s\bar{a}-p$, by him; $khung-ko-s\bar{a}$, by him; khaash, to them; $khik-k\bar{a}$, from them; o-mi, his, etc.

The short forms o, my; $\bar{a}m$, thy; om, um, am, his, are used as pronominal prefixes. Thus, o-mi o-hai, me-of my share, my share; omi om-khet, him of his-field; $\bar{a}m$ -mi $\bar{a}m$ - $chh\bar{a}$, thee-of thy-son. Instead of om, um, his, we also find o, u, respectively; thus, omi o-bo, him-of his-belly; o- $bongk\bar{a}$ u- $chh\bar{a}$, my-uncle his-son. In mu-huk-pi, his-hand-on, mu is used instead. Compare the Külung pronoun $m\bar{u}$ -ko, he, in Hodgson's list. $W\bar{a}$ in deppoye $w\bar{a}$ - $chchh\bar{a}$, how many sons? corresponds to Külung wa, his.

It has already been remarked that these pronominal prefixes are sometimes used as simple formatives without implying the meaning of a definite person. Compare o- $p\bar{a}$, father; $\bar{a}m$ -long, feet; om-lo- $p\bar{a}$, white, etc.

Demonstrative pronouns are ongko, angko, angka, ah, this; khungku, khungkā, mung-ko, ko, that.

Note also the reflexive pronoun hop-mi, own; i-hop-mi-si, mine own.

Interrogative pronouns are $\bar{a}se$, who? $\bar{a}s\text{-}me$, whose ? ue, what? dek, how much? how many? dei, how much? deppoye, how many? The final e in $\bar{a}s\text{-}e$, u-e, deppoy-e. is probably an interrogative particle.

Indefinite pronouns are formed by adding so or so-m to the interrogative; thus, ās-ā-so, by anybody; u-som, anything.

There are no relative pronouns. Interrogative and demonstrative pronouns are, however, sometimes used as a kind of relative; thus, ilpo-mi . . . äs-ā khung-ku pok-su, of one . . . who sent him; ām-mi angko ām-chhā, khollong beshye-si-kā ām-mi rong chā-khu-chi, khallu tā, khollungā ānā-ā bāchhā set-tu, thee-of this thy-son, he harlots-with thee-of property devoured, he came, then thee-by calf killedest, when this thy son came, who wasted thy property with harlots, then thou killedest a calf.

Verbs.—The Khambu verb is comparatively simple, if the specimens faithfully represent the actual state of affairs. It is still a noun, and there are no certain instances of the use of personal suffixes in order to indicate the subject. On the other hand, there is apparently a tendency to prefix a pronoun in order to indicate the object; compare khung-ko-lo kho-pā-piko, him-to him-to-will say, I will say to him; khodo-pikā, he said to him, etc. Similarly, the final u in forms such as set-tu, killedest; tut-tu, asked, perhaps denotes an object of the third person. Compare Limbu.

Verb substantive.—The most common base of the verb substantive is tu. We also find ka and Aryan forms such as ho and chhu.

Finite verb.—The same form is often used to denote different tenses. It is not, therefore, possible to give a full sketch of Khambu conjugation.

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Present time.—The usual form of the present tense takes one of the suffixes o and e. O, or u, is most common in the first person singular, but also occurs in the second and third persons; e is used in all persons. Thus, tu-o, am; tu-we, art, is, are; kongā kero, I strike; ānā kero, thou strikest; kho-sā-p kere, he strikes; tu-chā-e, he is sitting; ka-e and ke, it is; dei tom-e, how far is; chāre-mu-yo, he is grazing.

The suffixes o and e are sometimes preceded by a t; thus, $\bar{a}n\bar{a}$ ker-t-e, you strike, and perhaps also forms such as kong $kh\bar{a}$ -t-o, I go.

A suffix ang occurs in the only instance of the first person plural which is found in the specimens; viz., kei-yā ker-ang, we strike. Compare ngā in chimngā, they are.

In khachā ke-chi-no, they strike, chi is perhaps the plural suffix and no a verb substantive.

The forms chhui, they are; chimngā, they are, probably contain the suffix i, i.e., e mentioned above.

Ho, is, is an Aryan loan-word.

A periphrastic present is formed by adding the present tense of the verb substantive to the base or to the present participle; thus, $t\bar{a}$ -tu-e, they are found; ker-tong tu-co, I am beating.

Past time.—The suffixes o and e are also used with the meaning of a past. Thus, tu-o, I was; ker-o, I have beaten; tu-e, we were, they were, etc. Forms such as siyo, (a famine) arose; mu-yo, I did, probably contain the same o. O or u is preceded by a t in forms such as set-tu, he killed.

Instead of e we find \bar{i} in forms such as $m\bar{a}n-t\bar{a}-\bar{i}$, did not pass; $java\bar{a}p-p\bar{i}-\bar{i}$, answer gave. Several other forms are used with the meaning of a past.

The base alone occurs in forms such as $m\bar{a}m-p\bar{i}$, did not give; $t\bar{a}$, he came; mu, I did. A suffix ko, i.e., o preceded by a k, occurs in $kh\bar{a}m-mo-ko$, he filled; $b\bar{a}n\bar{a}-ko$, I have come, etc. This o is probably connected with the u in forms such as pok-s-u, he sent him; $m\bar{a}sdi-t-u$, he wasted.

A common suffix of the third person is \bar{a} ; thus, $tuw\bar{a}$, he was, they were. Forms such as $t\bar{a}h$ - $\bar{a}h$, he found; chhuli- $m\bar{a}h$, he made anger, ne got angry, apparently show that this suffix is pronounced with the abrupt tone. In the first person singular we find ker-tong tu- $w\bar{a}$ - \bar{a} , I was beating. The double \bar{a} probably denotes the tone, and the final ng of ker-to-ng is perhaps a pronominal suffix of the first person singular.

A is sometimes preceded by a t; thus, tok- $t\bar{a}$, passed. Another suffix le has been inserted in $kh\bar{a}$ -le- $t\bar{a}$, he went (to a distant country). It perhaps indicates that the action of the verb takes place at some distance.

A suffix $ng\bar{a}$ occurs in $m\bar{a}m$ -mo- $ng\bar{a}$, I did not; $m\bar{a}m$ -pi- $ng\bar{a}$, didst not give. It has been added to the suffix e in $m\bar{a}ng$ $kh\bar{a}$ -e- $ng\bar{a}$, I did not go. It is apparently only used with a negative.

A suffix ni or nu occurs in forms such as tu-wa-ni, you were; hāyo-po-ni, he divided; mohi-dungu-nu, he kissed; e-nu, he heard.

In the second person singular a suffix yo has been added in tuwā-yo, wast; khā-to-yo, wentest.

Isolated forms are to-khī, he saw; chā-khu-chi, he devoured. They apparently contain a suffix khī or khu. Chi in chā-khu-chi is perhaps the plural suffix. It occurs in the phrase khollong ām-mi rong chā-khu-chi, he thy property devoured; compare rong-chhī, property.

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Future.—The present is also used as a future; thus, khāto, I will go; kho-pā-pik-o, I will say to him.

A suffix $n\bar{a}$ is added in forms such as $kong\ chhu-o-n\bar{a}$, I may be, I should be; $kong\bar{a}$ $ker-u-n\bar{a}$, I may beat. It is preceded by $y\bar{a}$ in $kong\bar{a}$ $ker-e-y\bar{a}-n\bar{a}$, I shall beat. The list of words further contains the form $kong\ tu-o-ho-la$, I shall be.

Imperative.—The base alone is sometimes used as an imperative; thus, cha, eat; yuk-so, keep. The most common form of the imperative, however, ends in te; thus, bai-te, take; pi-te, give; ker-te, strike. The present base ending in o is used in forms such as pi-yo, give. The list of words further contains forms such as $kh\bar{a}t\bar{a}$, go; $siy\bar{a}$, die, etc.

Chāgam, let us eat, is perhaps a verbal noun or a participle.

Verbal noun.—A verbal noun is formed by adding am; thus, ker-am lagi, beating for, to beat. In the form ker- $m\bar{a}$, beating, am has been replaced by $m\bar{a}$. Compare also $kh\bar{a}$ -m mo-ko, filling did, he filled.

A locative or terminative of the base is $char\bar{a}\bar{i}$ - $p\bar{i}$, in order to tend. $Chhuw\bar{a}$, to be, is the past base; or else $w\bar{a}$ is the same suffix as Tibetan pa, ba; compare $t\bar{a}$ - $b\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{a}$, on coming.

Participles.—A present participle is formed by adding to, and a corresponding past participle by adding $t\bar{a}$; compare the present and past bases. Thus, $kh\bar{a}$ -to, going; ker-to-ng tu-vo, beating am, I am beating. A suffix $p\bar{a}$ occurs in tu- $p\bar{a}$, living, resident.

Other past participles are formed by adding ko or $k\bar{a}$ to the past base ending in \bar{a} ; thus, $siy\bar{a}-ko$, dead; $m\bar{a}s\bar{a}-k\bar{a}$, lost.

Chhuwā-nā, being, is probably the ablative of the verbal noun. Compare $khetal\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{\imath}$ -kho-nā, servants-in-them-from, from among the servants. Compare $t\bar{a}$ - $b\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{a}$, comingafter, on coming.

Conjunctive participles are formed by adding nu or $n\bar{a}$ to the base, with or without the suffixes o and \bar{a} ; thus, $bai - n\bar{a}$, bringing; $pok - o - n\bar{a}$, arising; $bulsa - n\bar{a}$, running; $kh\bar{a}t\bar{a} - nu$, going. The past tense alone is also used in the same way; thus, $b\bar{a}n\bar{a} - ko$, having come; $udohoe - khodo - pik\bar{a}$, why? that having said, because. $Piky\bar{a} - lo$, on saying, is formed from a verbal noun ending in $y\bar{a}$, i.e. \bar{e} by adding the postposition lo, with.

Causatives are formed by adding so, su or mit; thus, yuk-so, cause to be, keep; pok-su, sent; khām-mit-te, cause him to put on. A causal verb is also set, kill; compare si, die.

Negative verb.—A negative verb is formed by prefixing $m\bar{a}n$, the final nasal of which is assimilated to a following consonant. A suffix $ng\bar{a}$ is sometimes added; thus, $m\bar{a}n$ - $t\bar{a}\bar{\imath}$, did not pass; $m\bar{a}ng$ - $kh\bar{a}$ -e- $ng\bar{a}$, I did not go; $m\bar{a}m$ -pi- $ng\bar{a}$, didst not give; $m\bar{a}m$ -mo- $ng\bar{a}$, I did not do.

Another negative particle is a suffixed no; thus, $kh\bar{a}$ -to-no, I did not become, I am not; chhe-to-no, I do not know.

Order of words.—The usual order of words is subject, object, verb.

For further details the student is referred to the specimens which follow and to the list of Standard Words and Phrases on pp. 409 and ff.

[No. 32.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

KHAMBU.

(DISTRICT DARJEELING.)

SPECIMEN I.

Eli ngichi am-chhā tuwā. Khikkā känchhä missī pikā, Them-from small · 0 One man(-of) two his-sons were. said. kho-sā o-mi o-hai kong piyo. Ongā kha-ash rong-chhī pāā, him-by me-of my-share me give. Then them-to property father, kānchhā mān-tāī, o-chhā rong-chhī hāvoponi. Orotto nām kholongā divided. smallhis-son all Many days not-passed, property Khikkā hāyā luchpan-ko chhoburi thāmpu khāletā. bāt-lo-mu went. That-after there debauchery-in far country gathered rong-chhī mas-ditoe. Jaba morang nám tok-tā. o-mi morang wasted. When his spending *pending days passed, property mās-ditu, taba khungkā thāmpu-ko orotto sisowa sivo. khunko kholong wasted. then that country-in big famine arose. all he Khikkā khungko Taba khungko chhuksir-chhowā khā-tā. khā-tā-nu he destitute-to-be went. And going Then khungku khungku thāmpu-ko tupā-ko ilpo-mi ilpop-tuwa, āsā him who servant-became, that country-in residents-in one-of om-khet bo pok-su. Khikkā khungko-sā khungku charăi-pi o-mi his-field sent. And him-bu those his pigs grazing-for o-bo khām-moko. Khikkā umsippā-kā khungku bo-a cho-yo, o-mi his-belly fill-did. And husks-from those pigs-by ate. his khungku Khungku-khana honaiā u-som mām-pī. āsā-so-nāo Then him him-to anyone-even anything not-gare. khikkā kho-sā orotto khetālāchi-m pikā. 'o-mi o-pā-mi aniutā, then him-by said. 'me-of my-father-of many labourers-of thought-came, chhuĩ. säbeh khikkā kongā maisī sivo. Kongā poko-nā orotto is. die. bread and I hunger I arising muchkhāto " e khonā khungko-lo kho-pā-piko, o-pā-pā ihop-mi-si my-father-to will-go and him-with him-to-will-say, " O Oton kongā nām-to-ko biruddha khonā ām-mi sāmunne mu. pāā, pāp Kongā thee-of Heaven-to against and before 8i11 did. I father, Konga ām-mi ām-chhā tongko khā-to-no. ām-mī khetā-lā-pī hosangā thee-of thy-son like became-not. I thee-of servants-in VOL. III, PART I. 2 7 3

ilpo tongā yuk-so."' khungko pokā um-pā-tuspo-ko khā-tā. Khona khonā Then he arose his-father-near keep.", went. like from one chhuburi tuwa. kha-su um-pā khungki tokhī. khikkā Khonā khungko his-father his him Then he far was. saw. and khonä khā-tā um-phosi-pā tukā. bulsa-nā khep-pu um-sām kho and runnina ment his-neck-on embracina came. him pity O-chhā kho-dā-pikā, 'e kongā nāmto-ko mohi-dungu-nu. pāā, biruddha him-to-said, 'O father, kissed. The-son I Heaven-to against ām-mi sāmunne Kongā pāp mu. hosangā ām-mi ām-chhā tongko I sindid.again thee-of before thee-of thy-son like kongang(sic) sewaite-chi-pkā khā-to-no.' Kongā(sic) o-pā kho-do-pikā, hecame-not. But the-father servants-to Oton them-to-said. teī khām-mit-te; khongā 'kholong-pi-kā ngāli no-pā lotte, kha kho-mi 'all-in-from mostgoodrobe bring, him to-put-on-cause; and him-of mu-huk-pī mundrā, khongā ām -long-pi wāī-mit-te. iutā Kho-do-do-ko his-hand-on andhis-feet-on ring, shoes put.Then chhyo-pā bāchhā bai-nā set-te. Kho-do-do-ko kei-yā chāgam ijina calf bringing Then fat kill.we will-eat merry Udohoe-khodo-pikā, angko o-chhā siyā-ko tuwā, hosangā khā-te. le-tā: should-become. Why?-that-said, this my-80n deadwas. again lived: māsākā tuwā, hosangā tuwā.' Kho-do-do-ko kho-chi jina khā-tā. lost again was-found. was. Then theu merry became.

Um-chhā jethā bārib tuwā. Kho-do-do-ko khallu bangtong tuwā His-son eldest field-in was. Then he coming was khim-nī nājik-pingā tā-bā-nā, khollongā bājā enu chhāmāko omsal house-of near arriving, then musicheard dancesound enu. Khongkā kho-sā hop-mi sewaite-chi-pkā ibon-chi nājik-pī heard. Then him-by own servants-in-from one near kāchbāah tuttu, 'angko ue?' Kho-sā-ā kho-do-pikā, 'âm-ne-chho calling asked. this what?' Him-by 'thy-younger-brother him-said. tā, khodo-doko ām-pā chyopā bāchhā set-tu, udohoe pikyā-lo, kho came, and thy-father fatcalfkilled. whysaying-on, him seserugā tāhāh.' khosā chhulimāh, Khollu kho-do-do-ko gopā khā-to-no. safe found.' But he was-angry, andinside went-not. Udohoe um-pā-āh pākhā-pa-tā-no kho-sā lem-pikā. Kho-sā-āh Therefore his-father-by outside-coming him entreated. Him-by pā-āh jawab piī, 'khongū, kongā anto tāto-kā ām-mi sewā father-to answer ·lo, gave, I so-many years-from thee-of service. muyo; kho-do-do-ko daio-song am-ring dālai-māmī mām-mo-ngā. Khodo-doko did; ever thy-order transgressing not-did. And ănā khongā dalo-songa ibam bāthā songā mām-pingā ; o-mi o-umthou me ever one kid even not-gavest; me-of 97LY-

angko ām-chhā, khollong Khalloe ām-mi chi-kā jinā khā-te. this thy-son, he thee-of But friends-with merry might-make. khollungā ānā-ā chā-khu-chi, khallu tā. beshye-si-kā ām-mi rong thee-by then devoured, ke came, harlots-with thee-of property 'е bāchhā set-tu. Pā-ā kho-sā-ā pikā, chyop kho-m lāgi him-to said, killedest.' Father-by sake-for calfhim-of fat o-chhāngā, ānā-ā kong-lo sādong tue. Khodo-doko o-m tue, kholong jyā what mine is, all And me-with always art. my-80n, thou khā-mā khunām khā-mā khongā Khalloe jinam ām-ming ho. gladto-become and to-become But merry is. thine ām-necho siyako tuwa, ongko udohoe pikyā-lo, āchhing-ngā-ngā; dead 1044, this thy-younger-brother saying-on, why was-proper; pheri le-tā; māsākā tuwā, pheri tuwā.' found. again again lived; lostwas,

[No. 33.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

KHAMBU.

(DISTRICT DARJEELING.)

SPECIMEN II.

Khambuwan. Konga O-thampu ke Mahākulung: ah thāmpu-kā 7 Khambu. My-country isMahākulung: this country-from Kirãt lākh passīũ hempā nau chimngā. O-thari bikkhosi. kongā lakhKirānts westtowardsnine are. My-caste bikkhosi. and kongā hep-mi thari kholong chhe-to-no. Kong Dárjiling bānā-ko. castes other allI know-not. I Darjeeling came ikkhāl harkha chhuwā. Kong o-tel māng khāengā. O-thāmpu-pā twenty *uears* were. T my-home notwent. My-country-in o-mā o-bu-chi o-pā ngippu. O-bu-chi-m ngippongā my-father my-mother my-elder-brothers two. My-elder-brothers-of both biyā chhuwā. Ām-chhā-chi O-thampu-pa tuwe. chā-m-thokī $r\bar{a}$ marriage became. Children are. My-country-in eutable paddy lissī makāi bāmā pesi longkupā sapkhe yoksikhe khonto tā-tue. millet longkupā potatoes yoksikhe these-all millet maize buckwheat found-are. binnīpā songā tuwe. Angka-chi-m nging chhe-to-no. These-from others also These-of are. nameknow-not.

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

I am a Khambu. My country is Mahakulung, to the west of this country in the country called No lakh Kirāt. My caste is Bikkhosi. I do not know our other castes. I came to Darjeeling twenty years ago, and I have not been home since that time. My father, my mother, and my two elder brothers live in my country. My brothers are both married and have children. There are several eatable plants in my country, such as paddy, marwa, maize, buckwheat, millet, longkupā, potatoes, yoksikhe, and also others, but I do not know their names.

¹ An old name of the Kirat-country in Eastern Nepal. The phrase is interpreted to mean that a house-tax, at two annas per family, yielded nine hundred thousand annas.—Hodgson. See, however, above p. 316.

BĀHING.

The Bāhings are one of the sub-tribes of the Khambus, who live in the Central Himalayas between the Likhu and Arun rivers in Nepal. We have no information about their number.

AUTHORITY-

Hodgson, B. H.,—Comparative Vocabulary of the Languages of the broken triber of Nep4'. Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. xxvi. 1857, pp. 317 and ff. (contains a Bahing vocabulary on pp. 350 and ff.); pp. 486 and ff. (a full Bahing vocabulary): Vol. xxvii. 1858, pp. 393 and ff. (Bahing grammar). Reprinted in Missellaneous Essays relating to Indian Surjects. London 1880, Vol. i. pp. 161 and ff. The short Bahing vocabulary on pp. 194 and ff.; the full vocabulary and the grammar on pp. 320 and ff. The title of this latter part of the reprint is Analysis of the Bahing Dialect of the Kiránti Language. A.—Bahing Vocabulary (pp. 320 and ff.). B. Bahing Grammar (pp. 353 and ff.).

Hodgson's essay contains a full sketch of Bāhing grammar and also a short specimen of the dialect. The latter will be reproduced below, together with an interlinear translation, which has been added by me. It is not quite certain in one or two places.

No new materials have been forwarded for the purposes of this Survey, and the remarks on Bahing grammar which follow are entirely based on Hodgson's paper.

Pronunciation.—Bāhing possesses what Hodgson calls the pausing tone. It occurs in words such as the plural daa, in which the double a denotes an a pronounced with that tone.

I am not able to decide the precise value of the sound which Hodgson marks eu. In some cases he states that eu is the French eu; thus in words such as sheureu, neck; neu, nose; yeu, rat. Writings such as theum and thim, mind; seu, $s\bar{u}$ and $sy\bar{u}$, who? and so forth, however, seem to show that the pronunciation is rather that of u in French 'lune' or of \bar{u} in German 'Güte.'

Ya and ye are sometimes interchangeable; thus, yam and yem, this; māra dāyena and māra dāyana, what saying? to wit, that is to say.

There are several cases of interchange between different consonants; thus, *ip-po*, sleep; *im-pāto*, make him sleep; *bwang-nga*, I am; *bwang-ye*, thou art; *bwak-se*, they two are; *bwam-me*, they are. Numerous instances of such interchange will be found in Hodgson's grammar, to which the student is referred for further details.

Prefixes and suffixes.—There are numerous prefixes and suffixes. The meaning of the prefixes cannot, in most cases, be ascertained. They have commonly been reduced to only containing a single consonant; thus, blocho, a bed; brepcho, finger; $br\bar{o}$, taste; grong, horn; $gr\bar{a}$, rope. The prefix \bar{a} in words such as \bar{a} - $r\bar{i}$, smell; \bar{a} -po, father; \bar{a} -mo, mother, etc., is originally a demonstrative pronoun or a possessive pronoun of the third person; compare birma \bar{a} -tami, cat its-young, and so on.

Numerous suffixes are used in order to form participles and nouns from verbal bases.

A common verbal noun is formed by adding the suffix cho; thus, dwak-cho, wish; mō-cho, fight; lī-cho, silence. The same or a different suffix occurs in words such as rūkok-cho, spade; lap-cho, door; rik-cho, bamboo; cho-cho, cheek; brep-cho, finger.

The suffix cha forms nouns of agency; thus, li-cha, bowman; khyim-cha, house-man, householder; wār-cha, companion. It often has the same meaning as the suffix

ba which is used to form relative participles; thus, gik-ba, born, child; sing-chok-ba, carpenter; byang-si-kok-ba, cultivator; duk-ba, a drunkard, etc. It is probably related to wa in words such as $y\bar{a}$ -wa, elder brother; $t\bar{a}$ -wa, boy; $ry\bar{a}$ -wa, rain; $gy\bar{a}$ -wa, oil, etc.

The suffixes po and pau form masculine nouns of agency; thus, ryam-ni-po, an adulterer; dyal-pau, a villager. Corresponding feminines are formed by adding suffixes such as mi, mi-cha, and mo; thus, khlū-mi, widow; lī-mi-cha, a female bowman; ryam-ni-mo, an adulteress.

One of the most common suffixes is mc or m. It is added to other words in order to form adjectives, relative participles, and nouns. Thus, kwong, one; kwong-me, the one; wake-me, my one, mine; teup-ba-me, the striking one, the striker; singke-me, sing-ke-m, the wooden one; e-ke-me, the here one, he who is here; rimba-me, the handsome one; sheo-di-m, mouth-in-the, belonging to the mouth; ye-m, this; mye-m, that; $r\bar{u}$ -di-m $kh\bar{a}n$, garden-in-the vegetables, the vegetables of the garden; pu-di-m $pvo\bar{a}ku$, cup-in-the water, water of the cup; $kvo\bar{a}$ -nga-me, different; bubu-m, white; lala-m, red; lala-m-me, the white one; ja-cho-me, eating-of, edible; dak-cho-me, desirable, and so forth.

Other common suffixes are chi, so, sa, si, niwa, etc. Thus, sichi, front; techi, groin; michi, eye; mīchi, joint; pokchi, knee, and other nouns denoting parts of the body: grōkso, thing; sōkso, anger; nokso, priest: phūrsa, frost; ploksa, lightning; būsa, snake; gupsa, tiger: ngāsi, beer; hūsi, blood; dhyāksi, tree; gyērsi, pleasure; yuksi, salt: khuncha-niwa, theft; krākra-niwa, witchcraft, and so forth.

Nouns—Gender.—There is no grammatical gender. The natural gender is distinguished by using different words or by adding suffixes or qualifying words, such as $\bar{a}po$, father, male; $\bar{a}mo$, mother, female; nima, female, etc. Thus, $k\bar{\imath}k\bar{\imath}$, grandfather; $p\bar{\imath}p\bar{\imath}$, grandmother: vainsa, man; mincha, woman: $t\bar{a}$ -va, boy; $t\bar{a}$ -mi, girl: $l\bar{\imath}cha$, bowman; $l\bar{\imath}$ -mi-cha, female bowman: $ch\bar{a}cha$, grandson; $ch\bar{a}cha$ -nima, grand-daughter: $a\bar{p}o$ bing, bull; $a\bar{m}o$ bing, cow, etc.

Number.—There are three numbers, the singular, the dual, and the plural. The suffix of the plural is daa, and that of the dual daa-si; thus, $t\bar{a}$ -daa, children; $t\bar{a}$ -daa-si, two children.

Case.—The subject of intransitive verbs and the direct and indirect object are not distinguished by adding any suffix; thus, $ryamni-po\ d\bar{\imath}-ta$, the adulterer went; $h\bar{o}po-mi$ $h\bar{a}rem\ kw\bar{o}ng\ s\bar{\imath}s\bar{\imath}\ gip-t\bar{a}$, king-by him one phial gave. The word $h\bar{o}po-mi$, king-by, shows that the subject of transitive verbs is put in the case of the agent, which is formed by adding the suffix mi. The case of the agent is properly an instrumental; thus, sokti-mi, with force; jokso-ma-mi, wisely, and so forth.

The genitive is expressed by putting the governed before the governing noun, and usually also by repeating it by means of a possessive pronoun prefixed to the governing noun; thus, swongāra ā-grong, goat its-horn, goat's horn; wainsa-daa āni-ming, men their-wives, men's wives. A genitive is also formed by means of the suffix me, m; thus, rukokcho-m rīsing, spade's handle; rū-di-m khān, the vegetables of the garden. If the governing noun is understood, the common suffix is ke; thus, wainsa-ke, the man's. We also find forms such as wainsa-ke ā-ning, man's his-name, a man's name.

A locative is formed by adding di, and a terminative by adding $l\bar{a}$; thus, khyim-di, in a house; $khyim-l\bar{a}$, towards, or at, the house. An ablative can be formed by adding

ng to either of these forms; thus, syerte ā limbo ding, hill its middle from; lapcho lang, from the door.

Other relations are indicated by means of postpositions such as gware, within; taure, towards; nung, with; manthi, without; hateu-la, above; hayeu-la, below; gwayeu, under; gwayeung, from under, and so forth. They are often added to the genitive; thus, mej ā-gwayeu, under the table.

Adjectives.—The most common suffixes used to form adjectives are ba, wa, cha, me or m, na, and ke; thus, neu-ba, good; ngā-wa, old; gī-cha, alone; lēcho-me, saleable; wang-me, different; keke-m, black; pā-na, manufactured; kī-na, cooked; ram-ke, bodily; sing-ke, wooden. It will be seen that most of them can be considered as participles.

Comparison is effected by putting the compared noun in the ablative; thus, yam ding ngolo, him from great, greater than he; havpe ding kāchim, all from small, smallest.

Numerals.—The first numerals are :-

1 kwong; 2 niksi; 3 sam; 4 lē; 5 ngō; 6 rukba; 7 channi; 8 yā; 9 yhū; 10 kwaddyum; 20 āsim; 30 kwong āsim kwong āphlo (one score one its half); 40 niksi āsim; 50 niksi āsim āphlo; 60 sam āsim; 100 ngō āsim.

It will be seen that higher numbers are counted in twenties, and that multiplication is indicated by prefixing the multiplicator. Addition is indicated by adding the smaller after the higher number; thus, niksi āsim āphlo niksi, two scores its half two, two and fifty.

Generic particles are very seldom added. Li is used with reference to various beings and things; sing denotes timber trees; āpum soft trees, grasses, vegetables, etc.; syal weapons and implements; buom fruits; kha days, and so forth; thus, kwo-buom seti sichi, one chestnut fruit; sam-kha namti, three days.

Pronouns.—Pronouns are in most respects inflected like nouns. The pronouns of the first person have double sets of the dual and the plural, one including and the other excluding the person or persons addressed.

The table which follows registers the principal forms of the personal pronouns.

	· First person.	Second person.	Third person.
Sing. Nom.	gō	gā	hārem
Gen.	wā (my), wā-ke (mine)	ī, ī-ke	ā, ā-ke, h ārem-k e
Instr.	gō-mi	gā-mi	hārem-mi
Loc.	wa-ke-di	i-ke-di	ā-ko-di, hārem-di
Term.	va-ko-la	i-ho-la	ā-ke-ia, hārem-ke- is
Abl.	wā-ke-ding, wā-ke-lanġ	t-ke-ding, -lang	ā-kc-ding, hặrem-ding, etc.

	First person.	Second person.	Third person.
Dual Nom.	gō-si (incl.), gō-sūkū (excl.)	gā-si	hārem daa-si
Gen.	i-si, i-si-ke (incl.) wā-si, wā-si-ke (excl.)	ī-si, ī-si-ke	ā-si, ā-si-ke, hīrem daa-si-ke
Instr.	gō-si-mi (incl.) gō-sūkū-mi (excl.)	gā-si-mi	hārem daa-si-mi
Plur. Nom.	gō-i (incl.) gō-kū (excl.)	gā-ni	hārem daa
Gen.	ike, ik-ke (incl.) waks, wak-ke (excl.)	ī-ni, ī-ni-ke	ā-ni, ā-ni-ke, hārem daa-ke
Instr.	gō-i-mi (incl.) gō-kū-mi (excl.)	gā-ni-mi	hārem daa-mi

It has already been noted that \bar{a} is also used as a common prefix before nouns governing a genitive. The words po, father, and mo, mother, become pa, ma, respectively, when governing a personal pronoun of the first person. In that case \bar{a} is used instead of $w\bar{a}$; thus, \bar{a} -pa, my father; \bar{a} -po, his father: \bar{a} -ma, my mother; \bar{a} -mo, his mothe.

Hārem, he, she, it, is also used as a demonstrative pronoun meaning 'that.' Other demonstratives are yam or yem, this; myam or myem, that. They are inflected in the same way as hārem.

Interrogative pronouns are $s\bar{u}$, $sy\bar{u}$, or seu, i.e. probably $s\bar{u}$, who? $m\bar{a}ra$, what? gyem, which? Gyem takes the prefix \bar{a} if it is used in the meaning 'which of these;' thus, \bar{a} -gyem-me $l\bar{a}di$, which of these will you take?

There are no relative pronouns. Relative participles are used instead; thus, gyāwa dyam-patta-me sīsi, oil filled phial, a phial which had been filled with oil; gyāwa rī-nā-m myem rā-cho, oil smelling-one that to-bring, to bring him who smelt of oil.

Verbs.—It has already been remarked that there are no cases to denote the direct and indirect objects. Both are, however, marked in the verb by means of pronominal suffixes. The same is the case with the subject, and Bāhing conjugation therefore presents a rather complicated appearance; thus, $p\bar{a}$ - $v\bar{a}$, he does it; $p\bar{a}t\bar{a}$, he does it for him.

Each tense can be turned into a kind of noun by adding the suffix me; thus, $j\bar{a}$ - $ng\bar{a}$, I eat him; $j\bar{a}$ - $ng\bar{a}$ -me, he whom I eat: ja- $ng\bar{a}$ -si, I eat them two; ja- $ng\bar{a}$ -si-me, those two whom I eat: $j\bar{a}$ - $y\bar{i}$, he eats me; $j\bar{a}$ - $y\bar{i}$ -me, I who am eaten by him.

Voice.—Bahing verbs can be said to possess an active, a passive, and a middle. The difference between the active and the passive is, however, only apparent, it being

effected by adding different personal suffixes denoting the subject or the object. Thus, $j\bar{a}$ - $ng\bar{a}$, eat-I, I eat him; $j\bar{a}$ -y- \bar{i} , eat-me, I am eaten. The middle is formed by adding a suffix s or si and conjugating as usual.

In order to conjugate a Bähing verb it is therefore necessary to know the pronominal suffixes indicating the subject and the object. If more than one suffix is added to one and the same form, the suffix of the first person comes before that of the second, that of the second before that of the third. The suffixes of the subject and the object are sometimes different, and sometimes also identical. It will therefore be most convenient to deal with them together.

Subject and Object.—A subject of the first person singular is indicated by means of different suffixes. In the present tense of intransitive and reflexive verbs $ng\bar{a}$ is added to the base; thus, $p\bar{\imath}-ng\bar{a}$, I come; $r\bar{u}-ng\bar{a}$, I am satisfied; $b\bar{o}ng-ng\bar{a}$, I get up; teum-si-ng \bar{a} , I beat myself. The same is the case in some transitive verbs ending in a vowel, and which insert a suffix w or p in order to denote an object of the third person; thus, $t\bar{a}-ng\bar{a}$, I find him; $p\bar{a}-ng\bar{a}$, I do it; $s\bar{\imath}-ng\bar{a}$, I seize him. The common suffix with transitive verbs is, however, \bar{u} ; thus, $br\bar{e}t^{\dot{-}}\bar{u}$, I summon him; $d\bar{a}t^{\dot{-}}\bar{u}$, I seize him. The same suffix is also used with some intransitive verbs ending in d and d; thus, $myeld-\bar{u}$, I am sleepy; $b\bar{o}t^{\dot{-}}\bar{u}$, I flower; $kh\bar{\imath}t^{\dot{-}}\bar{u}$, I blow, etc.

The suffix in the past tense of transitive verbs is ong; thus, ja-t-ong, I ate him.

In the past tense of intransitive and reflexive verbs and in the whole passive the suffix of the first person is \bar{i} , or, after vowels, nasals, r and l, $y\bar{i}$; thus, $p\bar{i}-t-\bar{i}$, I came; $j\bar{a}-s-t-\bar{i}$, I at emyself; $j\bar{a}-y-\bar{i}$, I am eaten; $j\bar{a}-t-\bar{i}$, I was eaten.

A subject of the first person singular is not separately marked if the object is of the second person.

An object of the dual and plural of the third person is indicated by adding si, mi, respectively, to the forms given above; thus, $j\bar{a}$ -t- $\bar{o}ng$ -mi, I at them. The same suffixes are also used to denote the subject in the passive; thus, $j\bar{a}$ -t- \bar{i} -si, I was eaten by them two. A subject of the second and third persons singular is not, in that case, separately marked. Si also denotes an agent of the second person dual, and ni of the second person plural in the first person passive; thus, $j\bar{a}$ -y- \bar{i} -ni, I am eaten by you.

A subject of the first person dual excluding the person addressed is marked by adding the suffix $s\bar{u}k\bar{u}$, or, after s, $ch\bar{u}k\bar{u}$, in the active, and siki in the passive; thus, $p\bar{\imath} - s\bar{u}k\bar{u}$, I and he come; $j\bar{a} - s - ch\bar{u}k\bar{u}$, I and he eat ourselves; $j\bar{a} - ta - si - ki$, we two were eaten. It will be seen that $s\bar{u}k\bar{u}$ is the same suffix as is added in the pronoun $g\bar{o} - s\bar{u}k\bar{u}$, I and he. Siki is the corresponding suffix of the object. The interchange between $s\bar{u}k\bar{u}$ and siki is parallel to that between \bar{u} and \bar{s} in the singular

Forms such as brēte-si, we two summon thee; brēti-si-si, we two summon you two; breti-ni-si, we two summon you; brette-si, we summoned thee, and so forth, apparently contain a suffix si denoting an agent of the exclusive first person dual. The same forms are, however, also used if the subject is of the third person dual. The suffix si being the regular suffix of that person, or rather a simple dual suffix without reference to person, there can be no doubt that forms such as those just mentioned do not contain a suffix of the first person dual, but are common dual forms without any restriction as to the person of the subject.

If the person addressed is included the suffix of the first person dual is sa, after s cha, passive so; thus, $j\bar{a}-sa$, we eat; $p\bar{\imath}-sa$, we come; $n\bar{\imath}-s-cha$, we sit down; $br\bar{e}ti-so$, we are summoned; $brett\bar{a}-so$, we were summoned.

The suffix of the first person plural excluding the person or persons addressed is $k\bar{a}$, past ko, passive ki; thus, $p\bar{\imath}-k\bar{a}$, we come; $n\bar{\imath}si-k\bar{a}$, we sit down; $j\bar{a}-k-t\bar{a}-ko$, we ate; $p\bar{\imath}-k-t\bar{a}-ko$, we came; $n\bar{\imath}-s-t\bar{a}-ko$, we sat down; $br\bar{e}ti-ki$, we are summoned; $j\bar{a}k-t\bar{a}-ki$, we were eaten. It will be seen that the k of this suffix is also inserted before the $t\bar{a}$ of the past tense if $t\bar{a}$ is not preceded by a consonant.

The suffix of the first person plural is replaced by that of the third if the object is of the second person; thus, brētte-mi, we, or they, called thee; brēttā-ni-mi, we or they called you.

The suffix of the first person plural including the person or persons addressed is ya, past yo, passive so. In verbs ending in a vowel an n is inserted before the $t\bar{a}$ of the past in the active, and a k in the passive. Thus, $p\bar{\imath}-ya$, we come; $n\bar{\imath}-si-ya$, we sit down; $j\bar{a}-n-t\bar{a}-yo$, we ate; $j\bar{a}-k-t\bar{a}-so$, we were eaten; $br\bar{e}tt\bar{a}-so$, we were summoned.

It will be seen that a subject of the first person is not separately marked if the object is of the second person. An object of the third person singular is understood in the forms mentioned above. If it is of the dual or plural, the suffixes si, mi, respectively, are added to the suffix of the first person. The same suffixes are also added to the passive suffixes of the first person in order to indicate the agent. Thus, $j\bar{a}$ - $ng\bar{a}$ -si, I eat them two; $brett\bar{a}$ -ki-mi, we were summoned by them.

If the subject is of the second person singular the suffixes added to transitive verbs are $\bar{\imath}$, past eu. The corresponding suffix with intransitive verbs and in the passive is \bar{e} ; thus, $j\bar{a}-y-\bar{\imath}$, eatest; $j\bar{a}-p-t-eu$, atest; $n\bar{\imath}-s-\bar{e}$, sittest; $p\bar{\imath}-y-\bar{e}$, comest; $j\bar{a}-y-\bar{e}$, art eaten; $j\bar{a}-t-\bar{e}$, wast eaten; $n\bar{\imath}-s-t\bar{e}$, was sitting. Forms such as $s\bar{a}-n-\bar{e}$, wast killed; $ng\bar{\imath}-n-\bar{e}$, art afraid, show that the original suffix was perhaps $n\bar{e}$.

The p preceding the t of the past tense in $j\tilde{a}-p-t-eu$, atest, probably denotes an object of the third person. An object and a subject of the third persons dual and plural are indicated in the same way as with a subject of the first person; thus, $j\tilde{a}-y-\tilde{\imath}-m\tilde{\imath}$, eatest them; $br\tilde{e}tte-s\tilde{\imath}$, wast summoned by them two, etc.

If the object is of the first person the corresponding passive forms of the first person are used; thus, brēttā-ki, summonedest us.

If the subject is of the first person singular, an object of the second person is indicated by adding na; thus, $br\bar{e}ti$ -na, art summoned by me. In the past tense of verbs ending in a vowel, n is also inserted before the suffix $t\bar{a}$ of the past; thus, $t\bar{a}$ -n- $t\bar{a}$ -na, wast found by me. Such forms are properly passives, and the restriction in their use to such cases in which the subject is of the first person singular, is apparently a secondary departure of the dialect.

The suffix of the second person dual is si, or, after s, chi; thus, $t\bar{a}$ -si, you two find him, are found by him; $t\bar{a}$ -si-mi, you two find them, are found by them; $n\bar{i}$ -s-chi, you two sit; $j\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{a}$ -si, you two ate, were eaten, etc. Such forms are used as active and passive tenses.

If the object is of the first person, si is added to the passive forms used with a subject of the first person; thus, $t\bar{a}$ -y- \bar{i} -si, you two find me; $br\bar{e}tt\bar{a}$ -siki-si, we two were sammoned by you two. The suffix si is added to the ns used when the object is of the

second person singular, if the subject is of the first person singular; thus. $t\bar{a}$ -n- $t\bar{a}$ -na-si, you two were found by me.

The suffix of the second person plural is ni. Its use is parallel to that of si; thus, $t\bar{a}$ -ni, you find him, are found by him; $n\bar{i}$ -si-ni, you sit down; $br\bar{e}tt\bar{a}$ -siki-ni, we two were summoned by you; $br\bar{e}tt\bar{a}$ -na-ni, you were summoned by me.

The suffixes of the second persons dual and plural are se. ne. respectively, in the imperative; thus, $j\bar{a}$ -se, eat you two; $j\bar{a}$ -ne, eat ye. It seems probable that the forms ending in e are the real active forms, and that si, ni, are properly suffixes of the object, or passive suffixes.

A subject of the third person singular is only distinguished in the verb if it is intransitive, or if the object is of the third person. In other cases the passive forms mentioned above under the head of the first two persons are used.

If the object is of the third person, and in intransitive verbs, a subject of the third person singular is commonly distinguished by the absence of any suffix; thus, jyul, he places him; $p\bar{\imath}$, he comes. Transitive bases ending in vowels and surd consonants add an \bar{a} in the present; thus, $t\bar{a}$ -w- \bar{a} , he finds him; $s\bar{a}d$ - \bar{a} , he kills him. The same is the case in intransitives ending in d and t; thus, myeld- \bar{a} , he is sleepy. The termination in reflexive bases is $s\bar{e}$, thus, $n\bar{\imath}$ - $s\bar{e}$, he sits down. The termination of the third person of the past is $t\bar{a}$; thus, $j\bar{a}$ -p- $t\bar{a}$, he ate him. The p preceding the $t\bar{a}$ in such forms only occurs in verbs ending in a vowel. It is perhaps a suffix denoting an object of the third person, and connected with the w inserted between the base and the suffix \bar{a} of the third person singular of verbs ending in vowels; thus, $j\bar{a}$ -w- \bar{a} , he eats. This w, and also the suffix \bar{a} , is dropped before suffixes denoting an agent of the third person dual and plural; thus, $t\bar{a}$ - $w\bar{a}$ -mi, he finds them; but $t\bar{a}$ -me, he is found by them.

The suffix of the third person dual is se, or, after s, che, in the active, and si in the passive. Si is also used in the active if the object is of the first or second persons. Thus, $p\bar{\imath}$ -se, they two come; $n\bar{\imath}$ -s-che, they two sleep; $j\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{a}$ -se-si, they two were eaten by them two; $t\bar{a}$ -t-i-si, they two found me; $t\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{a}$ -si-si, they two found you two, and so forth. The suffix si is always used to denote the object. If there are two suffixes of the third person dual or plural, one denoting the subject and the other the object, the former precedes. Thus, $br\bar{e}t\bar{u}$ -si, I summon them two; $br\bar{e}ti$ -se-si, they two summon them two.

The suffixes of the third person plural are me and mi which are distinguished in the same way as se and si; thus, $p\bar{\imath}-me$, they come; $n\bar{\imath}-s-t\bar{a}-me$, they sat; $t\bar{a}-p-t\bar{a}-mi$, he found them, they were found; $br\bar{e}ti-mi$, they summoned me; $br\bar{e}ti-se-mi$, they were summoned by them two. In verbs ending in vowels an m is also inserted before the suffix of the past; thus, $p\bar{\imath}-m-t\bar{a}-me$, they came; $j\bar{a}-m-t\bar{a}-me$, they ate.

The preceding remarks will have shown how the various persons are indicated by means of suffixes added to the verb, and how those suffixes sometimes denote the subject and sometimes the object. If the object is indirect, a t is added to the base; thus, $teub-\bar{a}$, he strikes him; $teup-t-\bar{a}$, he strikes for him. Such verbs as end in t do not distinguish between the direct and indirect objects.

Tense.—The Bähing verb only has two tenses, a present and a past. The present is also used as a future. The past is formed by adding a suffix $t\bar{a}$, or, before suffixes beginning with vowels, t, to the base. A preceding sound is changed in various ways.

The table which follows registers the singular of the present and past of the active and passive of the verbs blāwo, take; pīwo, come; kwōngo, see; pōkko, raise; bōkko, get up; phyērro, sew; jyullo, place; teuppo, beat; rappo, stand up; brēto, summon; sāto, kill; ngīto, be afraid; gramdo, hate; myeldo, be sleepy; nīso, sit down.

	A	CTIVE.	Passive.			
	Present.	Past.	Present.	Past.		
1.	blā-ngā .	blāp-t-ōng	blā-y-ī	bla-t-s		
2.	bla-y-i	blāp-t-eu	blā−y-ē	blā-t-ē		
3,	blā-wā	blāp-tā	blā-w-ā	blā-tā		
1.	pi-ngā	pī-tī				
2.	pī-y-ē	pi-t-ē				
3.	pī	pī-t-ā				
1.	pōg-ũ	pōk-i-ōng	pōng-y-₹	pōk-t-ī		
2.	pōg-¥	põk-t-eu	pōng-y-ē	pōk-t-ē		
3.	कृठेद्व-क	pōk-tā	p ōg-ā	pōk-t-ā		
1.	bōng-ngắ	bōk-t-ī				
2.	bong-ng-ë	bōk-t-ē				
3.	bōng	bōk-tā				
1.	phyër-ë	phyër-t-öng	phyêr-y-î	phyēr-t-i		
2.	phyör-i	phyër-t-eu	phyēr-ē	phyër-t-ë		
3.	phyër	phyêr-ta	phyēr	phyēr-tā		
1.	. jyul-ū	jyul-t-ōng	jyul-y-I	jyul-t-ī		
2.	jyul-ī	jyul-t-en	jyul-ē	jyul-t-ē		
3.	jyul	jyul-ta j	jy≈l	jyul-tā		
L.	toub-ŭ	teup-t-öng	teum-yi	teup-t-l		
2.	· toub-i	teup-t-eu	teum-ē	temp-t-8		
3.	toub-E	teup-lä	teub-ā	teup-ta		

		ACTIVE.]	Passiys,
	Present.	Past.	Present.	Past.
1.	ram-ngā	rap-t-l		
2.	luin-ē	rap-t-ē	;	
3.	, ran	rep-iā		
1.	brēt-ā	brēt-t-öng	brë:-i	brēi-t-ī
2.	brët-i	brēt-i-su	brët-ë	brēt-t-ē
3.	brēt-ā	brēt-tā	brēt-ā	brēi-ia
1.	≉ād-ū	sā-t-ōng	ed-yi	sā-i-i
2.	\$ād-ī	કર્વ-t- ર પ્ર	કર્દેજ-રે	\$ā-i-ē
3.	sād-ā	\$ā-t-ā	sād-ā	aā-tE
1,	ngi-ngā	ngi-i-i		
2.	ngī-n-ē	ngī-t-ē		
3.	ngī	ng ī -tā		
1.	gramd-ū	gram-t-öng	gramd-ī	gram-i-i
2.	gramd-i	gram-i-eu	gramd-ē	gram-t-è
3.	gramd-ä	gram-tā	gramd-ā	gram-tā
1.	myeld-ë	myel-t-ī		_
2.	myeld-i	myel-t-ö		
3.	myeld-ā	myel-tā		
1.	ni-si-ngā	nī-s-t-ī		-
2.	nī-s-ē	nī-s-t-ē		
3.	nš-s-ë	nī-s-tā		

Other tenses are formed by adding the verb substantive to a participle. The bases of the verb substantive are $k\bar{a}$, $kh\bar{e}$, $ng\bar{o}$, and $bu\bar{a}$, but only the last one is used as an auxiliary. It is added to a participle ending in $s\bar{o}ngo$, which denotes continuity, in order to form a present definite and imperfect; thus, $br\bar{e}$ - $s\bar{o}ngo$ bwang- $ng\bar{a}$, I am summoning; $p\bar{s}$ - $s\bar{o}ngo$ bwak-t- \bar{s} , I was coming.

The table which follows shows how the	personal	suffixes	are added in	the present
and past of the verb jā-cho, to eat.				-

	Ac	TIVE.	Pa	SSIVE.	REPLEXIVE.		
	Present.	Past.	Present.	Past.	Present.	Past.	
Sing. 1.	jā-ngā	jā-t-ōng	jā- y -ī	jā-t- :	jā-si-ngā	jā-s-t-ī	
2.	jā-y-ī	jā-p-t-eu	jā-y-ē	jā-t-ē	jī-sē	jā-s-t-ē	
3.	jā-wā	jā-p-tā	jā-wā	jā-p-tā	jā-sē	jā-s-tā	
Dual 1. excl.	jā-sūkū	jā-tā-sūkū	jā-siki	jā-tā-siki	jā-s-chūkū	jā-s-tā-sūkū	
1. incl.	jā-sā	jā-tā-sā	jā-80	jā-tā-so	jā-s-chā	jā-s-tā-sā	
2.	jā-si	jā-tā-si	ja-si	jā-tā-si	jā-s-chi	jā-s-tā-si	
3.	jā-se	jā-tā-se	jā-wā-si	jā-p-tā-si	jā-s-chs	jā- s- iā-se	
Plural 1. excl.	jā-kā	jā-k-tā-ko	jā-ki	jā-k-tā-ki	jā-si-kā	jā-s-tā-ko	
1. incl.	jā-ya	jā-n-tā-yo	jā-so	jā-k-tā-so	jā-si-ya	jā-s-tā-yo	
2.	jā-ni	jā-n-tā-ni	jā-ni	jā-n-tā-ni	jā-si-ni	jā-s-tā-ni	
3.	jā-me	jā-m-tā-me	jā-wā-mi	jā-p-tā-mi	jā-si-me	jā-s-tā-me	

Imperative.—The second person singular ends in o before which a preceding single consonant is doubled. The forms $bl\bar{a}wo$, take; $p\bar{\imath}wo$, come, etc., given above on p. 334, are such imperatives. An object of the third person dual and plural is expressed in the usual way; thus, $j\bar{a}$ -wo-mi, cat them. If the object is of the first person, the corresponding passive forms of the first person present are used; thus, $t\bar{a}$ - $y\bar{\imath}$, find me; $t\bar{a}$ -siki, find us two; $t\bar{a}$ -ki, find us.

The suffix of the second person dual of the imperative is se, reflexive che, and that of the second person plural ne; thus, $j\bar{a}$ -se-si, ye two eat them two; $n\bar{i}$ -s-che, sit down ye two; $j\bar{a}$ -ne, eat ye. If the object is of the first person, passive forms are used; thus, $t\bar{a}$ -yi-ni, find me ye.

Verbal Nouns.—The usual verbal noun is formed by adding the suffix cho; thus, $j\bar{a}$ -cho, to eat. Another suffix ne is common in connexion with verbs meaning to begin, to end, to wish, and so forth; thus, $j\bar{a}$ -ne $pr\bar{e}n$ -si- $ng\bar{a}$, I shall begin to eat; $j\bar{a}$ -ne theum- \bar{u} , I shall have done eating; $j\bar{a}$ -ne-dwak-t- $\bar{o}ng$, I wished to eat. In forms such as $ply\bar{e}nti$ givo, release give; khlyakti $gipt\bar{a}ko$, anoint given-having, having anointed, the base alone is used as a verbal noun. Purpose is expressed by adding the suffix tha; thus, $j\bar{a}$ -tha $l\bar{a}$ -ti, to eat I went.

Participles.—The common suffixes of relative participles are ba and na; thus, gik-ba, born; kik-ba, begetting; $j\bar{a}-si-ba$, eating oneself; $j\bar{a}-na$, eaten; $j\bar{a}-si-na$, self-eaten. Verbal nouns and tenses can be turned into relative participles by adding the suffix me, m; thus, $j\bar{a}$ -cho-me, eatable; $j\bar{a}$ -ng \bar{a} -mi-me, those whom I eat, and so forth.

An adverbial participle is formed by adding so or so-mami; thus, teu-so or teu-so-mami, wisely; neuba pā-so-mami, good doing, well, etc.

Conjunctive participles are formed by adding na and ko to the tenses; thus, jā-yī-na brē-ngā, being eaten I shall cry out; jā-t-ōng-na pī-t-ī, eating it I came; brē-tā-ko mō-tā, having summoned him he said to him.

Causals.—Causals are often formed from intransitive bases by hardening the initial consonant; thus, dokko, fall; tokko, cause to fall; gikko, he born; kikko, beget; bokko, get up; pokko, raise.

Other causals are formed by adding t or d to the base. Thus, piwo, come; pito, bring: rawo, come; rato, bring: tungo, drink; tundo, cause to drink: niso, sit; nito, set.

Every verb can be made causative by adding pāto, do; thus, jā-pāto, cause him to eat.

Negative particle.—The negative particle is a prefixed $m\bar{a}$; thus, $m\bar{a}$ $j\bar{a}$ -ne-mi, don't ye eat them; $m\bar{a}$ ja-ng \bar{a} , I do not eat.

For further details the student is referred to Hodgson's grammar and to the specimen which follows. A list of words will be found on pp. 409 and ff.

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TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY, TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

KHAMBU.

BAHING DIALECT.

(B. H. Hodgson, 1857.)

brētha Kwöng mūrveu hopo-ke-di lātā. Gyëkho-paso brētha One man raja-to to-complain went. How-doing to-complain dāva-na? ' Wā khyim-di kwong müryeu rā-songo bwak-tā-ko ' My house-in saying? manone coming-continually been-having wā ming nung dwang-mo-se. Gō hārem gyānaiyo matā-ngā love-each-other-they-two. mywife with I himever notfind-IĪ-ke svū svū. nvau āsra jājulso myem sī-cho lāma,' Thee-of justice confidence who who. putting that seize-to let-me-go (?), dāso binti pāptā. Moko-ding hōpo-mi hārem kwong rĭ nyūba saying request made. Thereupon king-by him onesmellgoodgyāwa dyam-pāttā-me sīsi gip-ta-ko chyan-tā, 'yem sīsi ī ming oilfilled given-having bottle said. this. bottlewife gip-tā-ko, "svū-vo mā giwo," dāso lō-pā-so gīwo.' Hārem given-having, "anyone notgive," 8aying talking give.' That mūryeu-mi myem khongo pāp-tā. Hopo-mi yo chiwacha-daa man-by that manner did. Kin q-by also spies brēta-mi-ko chyan-tā-mi, svu-ke di r? nyūba gyāwa rī-nām called-them-having said-to-them, whom-of in 8me11 good oilsmelling-the mvem rá-cho. him bring-to.

Mēke-ding ryam-nipo bēla kwoso-mami ming-ke-di dī-ta. Myem Thereafter adulterer time seeing wife-to went. Thatming-mi wā-di rì nvüba gyawa khlyakti gip-tā-ko mō-cho wife-by cloth-in 8mell. goodoil anointing given-having say-to prens-ta māra-dāya-na. ' wā wancha-mi syū mā gīwo moti-me began what-saying, 'my husband-by anyone not give said-to-me-who bwā. Nākā gā wā ram-khôme bwang, ī kam-di $m\bar{a}$ ra-khēda is. But thou my body-as art, thy sake-for not comes-if svū-ke kam-di ra? dā-tā (or mo-ta). Meke-ding ryamni-po whose sake-for comes? said (said).Thereupon adulterer khyim-ding glūtā-na chiwacha-daa-mi ã rĩ tam-ta-me-ko myem house-from issuing spies-by his smellfound-having-they himsim-tā-me-ko hōpo-ke-di chō-tha dim-tā-me. seized-having-they king-of-to bring-to went-they.

Měke-ding hōpo-mi ũ wancha brētā-ko mētā. 'yem ī Thereupon king-by her husband called-having said. · fuis thy ryam-nī-po; dwāk-ti khedda, chyaro; dwak-ti khedda, plyenti giwo,' wife's-lover: wishest-for-him if, kil!:icishest if, release gire. (or plyenotako) dāso dātā. saying . said.

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

A certain man went to his prince to complain saying, 'a certain man is in the habit of coming to my house to make love to my wife, and I can never contrive to identify him. I rely on your justice to have that man arrested.' The Rājā then gave him a phial filled with scented oil and said to him, 'give this phial to your wife and caution her not to give it to anyone.' The man did so, and the Rājā instructed his spies to seize any person whose clothes had the scent of otto.

By and by the lover, finding an opportunity, went to his mistress. She rubbed the atter on his clothes and said, 'my husband desired me to give this atter to no one, but you are my life; to whom should I give it if not to you?' Then the lover left the house, and the spies, smelling the otto, seized him and brought him to the king. The king sent for the husband and said, 'this is your wife's lover. If you please, kill him, if you please, let him go.'

MINOR KHAMBU DIALECTS.

It has already been remarked that Hodgson has published vocabularies of several minor Khambu dialects, and it will be of interest to insert short notes on them in this place. One of them, the so-called Külung, mainly agrees with the dialect described above on pp. 317 and ff, and another, the so-called Dūmi, is essentially identical with the dialect described in what follows under the head of Rāi.

The information collected in the ensuing pages is very unsatisfactory, and numerous points connected with the grammar of the various dialects remain unsettled.

The materials are not sufficient for describing the phonetic system of the various dialects. The so-called abrupt tone occurs in all of them. It has been indicated by means of an 'after the syllable so pronounced; thus, Bālāli pih', cow. The marking of this tone, and the spelling generally, is, however, inconsistent, and I have not been able to introduce consistency.

The various sounds are, on the whole, marked as elsewhere in this Survey. I have, however, retained the writing eu because I am not certain about its proper pronunciation. Hodgson sometimes describes it as the French eu in 'jeu.' It seems, however, often to be a way of writing the \bar{u} in German 'Güte.' I have therefore preferred to retain Hodgson's spelling.

Hodgson also mentions the pausing tone. It has been indicated by doubling the vowel so pronounced; thus, Bālālī $k\bar{o}\bar{o}$, this.

A short note on each dialect will be given in the ensuing pages. In this place it will be convenient to print a short comparative vocabulary of all of them.

COMPARATIVE VOCABULARY OF MINOR KHAMBU DIALECTS.

	Balah.	Sängpäng.	Löhöröng.	Lambichhöng.	Waling.	Chhingtang.	Rüngchhenbüng
One-	ik'kū	itta, euli, eukla-pang	yekko	thīli, thibang	aktai, akta	thilta	eukchha, eukpo cukta.
Two	hich'che	hich'chi, hissali, hisalapang	hich'chi, hippang	hich'chi, kippang	ni, hasa, hasak	hichche	heuwang, heusa, heuwapop
Three	süng'-che	sūm'chi, samkali, samkalapang	sumcki, sumpang	sūm'chi, sumbang	syum'yak	sümche	sumya, sumpan sumkapop
Four	Zīji i	lākkabo, lakkali, lakalapang	līchi, rīchi, libang	!	lāyak		lānya, la-wang, la-wapop
Five	ngāji	ngākabo, ngākali, ngakalapang	ngāchi, ngabang		ngāzak		ngāya, ngawang ngakapop
Sjv	tūk'chi	tūkkabo, tukkali, tukalapang	tūkchi, tuppang		tūkyak		tūkya, tukwang, tukapop
Seven	ทนีว่ง	nūkkabo, nukkali, nukkalupang	nächi, nuvang				bhāng-ya, . bhāng-wang, bhang-kapop
Eight	yřchi	rckabo, rckkali, rekkalapang	yēcki, yepang				re-ya, re-wang, re-kapop
Nine ·	hāng'ji		bāng-chi, bung-pang				phang-ya, -wang, -pop
Ten	īp'pong		šp'pong				kipu, kip; dheuk-ya, -pang,-kapop
Twenty			nībong				<u> </u>
Forty			rik'pong				
Fifty			ngāk'pong				
Hundred			ippong-pong				
ī	kāngā, kā	kāngā	kāngā, kā	kāngā, kā	ingka, angka	ākā	unka, angka, ang
Thou	ānā	ānā	hānā, ānā	khānā	hānā, khānā	hānā	khānā
Who ?	āsā. āsālo	વેકરે, વેકરોલ	āeš	sēong	dei	sālō, hok-kogo	sāng
What?	nkha	yen	imang	tkīya	tikwa	thēm	diyê
How much?	aptoklo	dākile	yekwa		tem, dem	āsuk	dēmye
Anybody	, äsäne	ลิงลี-หลิทg	นี้งนี-งนี้หฎ	sī-cākā	asak-chhü	sālō-yāng	sängchhäng
Anything	ükküng	ร ั∂-≥ฉักสุ	imāng-sāng	thi-chhā	tiik-chhū	them-yang	dichhāng
Bird	ckkōnyxā	chhōngwā	sõngwä	nõwä	chhongwä	พลังส	chhōngwa
Blond	kēlluwa	ħī	kāri	kāli	kī, kā) kāži	kā, kēn

Düngmäli.	Rodöng.	Nächbereng.	Kalang.	Thulang	Chours.'ya	Khalleg	Dam.
ał po	aŭra, itto	Elion	u! Qm	kuong, kong, éstr	kolo	fin, isno	tšu, taus
k ichi	Alka/a	nistàcu	niś'rki	nt, njeli, nače	nik'si	EZEÇLE	szk'pu
sūm'chi	E 幕康 中亞	säk'ikou	rapleti	syëm, cule	sām m.2.k.š.3	skipo	sāk ps
līchi. richi	!yūra	lik basu	lichi	blē. Elem-le	phibak la	5437	blyzi
ngāchi	ngára	ngāk bhou	ng Toki	#g0, #g.lo	THE RESIDENCE OF THE PERSON OF	Skorg	ii.
tuk'chi	tük' kara		tūč'chi	ro, ru, ruče	1 20 00 00	rē	ารี นอ น สู
	raikara	•	nāchi	seren, ser, serie		tār	ri
	bhok' kara		rechi	yen, yel, getle		728	ri
**************************************		:	bong'cki	gũ, gale		ghū	
	1	1	ak'bong	k(n)ong-dyām		tadkam	
	1]		k(wiong n-sang		kk51-taŭ, k51	
•			.1	maa-sang		kkāl sākpo	,
				naasang ko-dyūm		kkāl sāk po tau ikam.	: !
		1		пдо-ганд		khāllhong	
ang'-ka, ing'-ka	ingka, kāngā, kī	kāngš, kā	kongā	93	ũng-gũ	йнg	űug, äng-ngu
idad 	khānā	ănā	āna	gāna	ngowe, žaz	is.	in, ā a r
āg, khigo	902	äs	318	syā, ūkem	āckū	IAIm	કપૃષ્ટે, કપુષ્ટેવું ૦
igo	dāko	Elē .	1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	kim	āmī	тандуа	mi nuga
í (m	dāmno	del	dēiye, dēi	kala, kuyu, kamboʻ	Is knowle	Lebe	hebe
āg-chhung	isāma, sõi	ī.	વેંદળ, વેંઠ	symbua	āckū-yē	. สมีเ- ยูง	* sy#-yō
ichkang	तेरे-रे, तेपुरस समृद्ध	ũ,đ	นิรถ	hamlens	āmā- yē	.n āng- yŏ	ะเริดกู-ทูว
kköngrä	ràsa	ckköira	chhōrea	chakpu	chakbea	salpo	בעונים
i	di, dāa	ài .	47	4747	E.A	À?	41

	Balali.	Sängpäng.	Löhäröng.	Lämbichhöng.	₩āling.	Chhingtang.	Rüngchhenbüng.
Child	pa-chhā, pi-chhā	ckhāckhe-chhā	pa	ckkā	chhāchi	chhāche	chhāchi
Cock	พลีpลี	wāpā	wāpa	impa-wā	wāpā	ranggāba	wāpā
Cow	pih*	pī	pik	pik'	gai	pit'	pit, pih'
Daughter	mimāchhāchkā	mimāckkāckkā	mennum-ma pasa	mēchchhāchhā	mā-ckhā	mēch'chhā-chhā	mēch'chhā- chhāchhā
Day	i ētta	um-lēpa	lēntā, len	ilēmba	wokholē, nāmdīya	nām	*kholēn
Dog	kõckämä	kāāga, kōga	hũ'wā	kochū	kötima, köchüwä	kōchūwā	kōchūwā
Ear	naba	naba	nāba (k)	noro	nāphāk	nārek	nãba
Egg	₩ ā-din	di	wēh'-d₹	thin, wāthin	dim	u-thīn	u-dīng, wā-dīn
Eye	müik, müh'	māk, mūh'	mik	mik, mik'	mak	mak	mak, maäk
Face	ngācheh'	ngāba	ngāchyāk, ngēchi	nāphāk	ngālāng	ngālūng	ngālūng
Fire	mi	mi	mi	mi	mi	mi	mi
Fish .	ngā	ngã	ngāsā	ऋतुर्वे≉वें	ngā	ngāsā	ngā
Foot	lāk', lāng	lä	lāng	läng	lāng	lāng	läng
Goat	mīthibā	ckhänggara	mithuba	mēndi	bākara	mēndība	chhēnggara
Grain	chāma	ckāna	chā, bujā	ckā-ma, būja	ckā	kwak, kok	chāmā
Hair	tangā, chā-mi, mūng	mwa, iāmu sām	tanga', mik'	mung, tang-pli- kwa	tāng-mīwa	tang'-phi kwa	mãa
Hand	huk', huk	kek'	kak'	māk, muh'	chhūk	mūk	chhuk
Head	tākklo	tākkūlo	tākhrok', ningtangwa	tāng	tāng	tãng	täng
Нод	bāh'	l kā:	bak', ba'	plāk	bōk, phā, khong	phak	bā
Horn	sātāng	tā	tang	sī#ga	khū ūng-tāng, atam'mi khak	sing'ga	u-sang'-ga
llouse	khim	khin	kkim	khim	khim	khim	khim
Hunger	*āge	zāka	ıāk'	sāk'	sãang-sãwā	sangsāwā	sāā, sūng-sāwā
Man	rātkāppa, rātkākpa	wāchek hā	vätkäppa, vätkangpa	pā, pāckki		pā	dû soackhā
Moun	<i>lā</i>	lä	lā	lādība	lādīma	läthība	lādīma
Mountain	yākp ū	<i>lhūri</i>	kongku, zani	ะลัทggū	dāda	bour	bhar
Mouth	şā	ngo	4.5	yāsi	twō, do	theram	dõ
Name	nang	NI	ning	ning	nang	nung	nang

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Düngmāli.	Rödöng.	Nächhereng.	Külung.	Thalasg.	Chuzras'ya.	Khaling	Dami
Lhāche	chhāchi	chlāmina	mukchu, chhā- chhā-ma.	chuë-chwe	bibe	űchyē	cly3-cky2
ēmbād-uā	wāpā	rāpā	nā pā	grāk-papū	bā•gāpa	ksklap	koklup
pit'	pī, pyspa	pi	pī	gai	bīa	gai	gy ai, bī
mõchichkā	märchkächhä	mimchhāchhī	mimckhāchkā	waschnê-chuế	1äbe	melsimā-chyē	měské-chyo
umlēnto(k)	kholë	mlēpu	lēpā	në mphi	dulsz	ănyoi	āngol, nālų
kūtimi	, khi	kaga	LAFLE	killis.	chili	knież	kn. 75
naplak	nāpro	1846] ₁₁₁	#36wa, #360	nēlphla	สติงส์	nêcho	a≨i 着
ūm-ting	dai	dīi	žm-dī, nā-dī	dīi	hā-lāng-y t	p lätt?	\$f:I
mak	mickak	mik'sa	muk'si	mik'nı	bisi	masů.	mas, viksi
nyālung	u-ngālung	nālva	ngibwa, ngibo	, kai	kali	kāphī	kāpki
mi	ser i	æ.i	, 288 i	建 草	gai	ni	, mi
ngā	ngārā	ngī	ngš	สสารฐ	ngōsē	ngo	18 50
läng	phili	150	long	kkel	lisen	eyāl	` əyāl, yū
chhāgar	chhōng-gara	chkängan	chkänggara	chhuara	*5*gara	grodyž	grot
c hēm ā, chēmcka	chā	ckāmma	: chīsām	ch5	jāma	jā, dyu	<i>j</i> ş\$
#is	mus'ya, twöng	tāa-sīm	mūī, tō-aām	, sēm, suēm	, 25m	umarsam, dosami- sam	นีบ-รธิกา , พ-รงก
chirk	chhi) AEE	ÁÑA'R	le3	25	kker	kkar
tāng	tāklo	tākio	t5ng	bāi .	phätiri	udhong	dhong
pāk, pa	. δδ	558	bió	bwī, bo	pđ	P0	ретка
khūkmū-tāng	rüng, tong	126	ŭm-pilta	*21-7-13.4g	r640	ugarang	grag
khi=	khim.	khim	kkin	nin	kādā	kām	kām, kim
sīgā	eākš	, sakāā	ıštā	brā.m	krēmkli	160	≥ōa
mirchia, pa	surückkä	wachechhā	decklā	wäschwe	õcko	las'ba	las'be
lādīma, ladīpma	līdēpa	lānīma	lā	khlyē, khlē	trasyāl	lyā	lûmyümtu, lu
	dZda	iãja	tām'-kim	bro	lvāna	udhām	
fero	296	ngōcko	ngo	ai .	dali	krom	keom, kom
enny	nang	24	ning	nang	di	*a*g	жинд

	Balali.	Sängpäng.	Löhöröng.	Lämbichhöng.	Waling.	Chhingtang.	Rüngehhänbüng.
Night	setia	um-sepā	son	i-semõ&	unkkakhü, akkakhwi	ukhakhūit	ukhākhwāi, ukhāko
Road	lām	lām.	lām, lam'phü	lāmbo	lām	lāmbo	Zām
Sky	กลิม	ni-nāmbobi, nām'chko	nāmtrūngma	nāmckhiri	sag'ra	nāmchkuru	nāmchok
Snake	pš	pš	pũ-se(-ma)	p i	puchkāp, puchkam	pückkā	püchkäm
Son.	wāthapch k ā	wāchchhachhā	wāthāppa-pasā	yemba chkā	dūwa-chhā chhā	chhāi	dūwachhā-chhā
Star	s देश gemmā	sānggeü	sāngge(-mmā)	chokehong-gi	sanggenma	chok-chong-i, chok-choi.	sānggēn
Stone	lu'ko'wa	<i>lūng</i>	lüng-kong-wa	lūng (-ok'wa)	lüng-täk	lünggwak'-wa	lũng'tā
Sun	nām	lõpā	nām	nām	nāmchkowa	nām	nām
Thirst	wāime	wān'mā	wait'mã	wait'mā	wāikmā	wāikmā	wāitmā, wāmitmā
Tiger	keuba	kīpa	kība	kība	dkīnarā, dkīnrā	kībha	kīwa
Tooth	kõng	kä	kēng	kēng	kang	kēng	kang
Tree	sin'tenda	tup-sāng	sing-täng-dāk	sing-i-tāng-li	sangu	sang'	sang'täng
Village	ten	tē	gāwā	ten	teng	tēn	tēng
Water	киндюй	(kā-)wā	yowā	chūwā, wēt	chāwā	chīwā	ckāwā
Woman	memekkā	mēmachhā	menümmä	māchhi	adûmā	māchē	mēchhāchhā
Far	tārko	chkūsi	100, 1883yo	mānglok	māng'-kha-ya	māng-no	māng-sa, mangkhīya-da
Near	notā	neti, yū-bli	nen, ning-täng	tangnek-lok	mumikngā, neh'yang	tangke, tangne	nek-ta, nekkhida, neëk
Gned	яйяс, якр	nī	nüye	nüyukkha	nā, khupu-nā, amwa, i	หนีทอ	相關的0
Bed	îsîne, îsap', nû-nî-ne	îni	īsa, phenna	nüyuk-nin-kha, ngasi-yukha	noūdkõi, aitpa	it'no	euwo, ā-nā-nin-k
Raw	mā-tūpti	wan'-du-(wako)	mentumpa, nākam' pa	kinglī (-kha)	umpāwa, aamang	umāng	womāng, umāng
Ripe .	tienap	selnäcki, düvako	dumom'pa, tumom'pa	thāyā (-ye-kha)	sūm'sa, tup'sa, bhang'sa	utkūbāi	tūmavo
Tall	kīb yē p	otto-ripiko	keye	kēyuk' (-kka)	kīyāng	kēno	kiyang, kong-yan kwangta
Short	tāksip'	attache-ripike	taksys, min'mu	wiguk'(-kia)	düiyüng	unno	simta, simyang
Ket	c l5	okš	ckeys	choh'	cko	chōka, chō-a	ckō
Drink	diago	čungu	düngi	thänge	dingi	thewa, the-a	düngö

Düngmäli.	Rodong.	Nichbiring.	Kting.	Thulung.	Chourse'ys.	Khaling.	Dami.
ēmkhāktā	ž45sai	штеубра	eřpa	dum'ma, dungma	domes, dwing- prime, dompaime	V-serām	ā-56%-3.3m
l3m	23m	Zām	75m	lin	25m	/5×45	: Kimiai
n in	дёж	матель	chhūduri, urtus	drāms	icom	dhām	zintë
pācilāp	picklo	рий	P#	plückyä	bīsa	žhei	bhri .
mirchk ī-chhā	*oröckka-ckkä	wach'chhā-chhā	wāchka-chkā	uaschne shwe	tī va	tārāpā-ckņe	lasit-chys
sänggenma	pitipya, pitappa	sangger'nca	säng-ger	· srar	gors.	scnggar	songger
lüngtā	lūng'to	7 ii ii	läng	läng	läng	Tāng	läng
nām-chhong-wa	nām, nām-liya	Rām	nām	перейну, неш	duām.	#.T#	133
ckāōmit'-mā	vāinā	wīnimā	wāmmā	kidā	สำผันวิวี	ranen', kunar'	kumīne
ł ł i b ł d	ckābkā	dking'trš	nāri	gāpeyā	ត្តរីទ្រវេ	*yor	#J.TP
kang	king	kaa	kāng	lye	gām'eo	ngīlu	agīlo, ang'lo
sang-pu	song-puna	:ēē	thonom	łkak'sa	eing	dhyāceā	topskū.
tën	tüzgmā	tyāl	. t&l	. दश	dēl	dīl	dēl
ckāk'wa	10%	kaarë	kāū	£2	£322	kī	kū
nma	mārchha	mim'chhā	mim'-chlā	wochyš	bickomäyo	mesp3	mestē
māng (-khūyā)	mokkā, mese, mise	ckkīburu	ckkügri	ckkyz-bat	lhāns	chhyūpā	căżyż
nek (-täng)	ugen'-ge, neu-ge		něz'-kla	*gčpa	ămes.	něpkům	medingā
4 S	nyo, krē-nge	nada, nat nathki	nő, női nőyn	sagbe	dācko	нуйра	nyšpa
	ise	ièda	man'-nōi	mî-nyê-pa	ādžekā	गाउँ-भभुष्टेष्ट	mā-nīpa
emāng	me, wmmc	měpe	māmtum-klāpa, mamdā-pa, mbpā	uchākk-li	krābo	Trita	ŭaŭio
ŭm'yī	tupsāko, mattāko	diwik	tum-klāpa, dūpa	thik'ta, thikta	thichō	diam'ps	mie'te
adhemego	kile, run'de	bkāipa, rēpa	wadrē ppa	yāps	rēbā, rēckā	song'-pa	song'-pa
ungo	ixang-kile, pakile	yčiš-rēpa, yšiš- bkāi-pa	chirôppa	dškiču-yčpa	ā-rōckē, ā-rōbō	dokkāi-song'-pa	tibi-ckyom
kõye	cãõ	₩À Ē-ĸ	cho	pā	jākātā	jyüye, küye	jy=
ünge	dängö	dings	düng'-ngu	dingi	tūčātā	tyung-ye	tingue

	Balali.	Sängpäng.	Löhöröng.	Lämbichhöng.	Waling.	Chhingtang.	Rüngchhenbüng.
Sleep	i peha	ipsa	îme	im'sa	im'sa	ip'sa	im'sa
Come	dāba	bānā	dābe	t kāba	būua	thāba	bāna
Gri	kheda	khātā	khāde	khāda	khāra	khāda	khāra
Run	phīna	bhūsa	pînc	pin'da	lõra	ping'da	lwāya
Give to me	pi-ngã	pī-ān	pī-ngc	pîrāng	pũ-ang	, pũ-an g	pū-āng
Give	pittu	pīyū	pitte	pira	рũ	pū	рū
Strike	lomu	kīru. vosu, yop' su	lõme	: tēna	พō-น	tēna	mou
Kill	sēd u	' aïlu	sēde	sēra	sēru	sēra	sēru

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Düngmāli.	Rödöng.	Nüchhäreng.	KClang.	Thilang.	Chouras'ya.	Kieling	Demi.
im'se	im'sa	im'sa	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	dm'12	glomiā	Tm oi	z w [*] ei
tābe	bāna	tīva	bāna	lika	Ţikātā	paise	ρū
kkāde	āta, pung'sa	.khāta	khāt2	isk sa	िन्द्र इंटर	kincie	èèse lle
rāde	100 M.C	bal'sa	būlsa	winda	prikālā	giāre	? bure
pīyāng-ye	idōng	* pī-a-va	piyš	gu3-āng	gek3	និងមន្តស្វិត	'17 33
pi-ye	idu	pî-yo	piyž	gnīkā	gēktā		7.7
nöre	chaî-zyŭ, chaî-dyū	Aob, sg	kērn	yalsa	tüşlö	yaliye	kler i d a
sõde	sētyš	eitü	sēts.	•ēda	zyūtiā	sēže	इ स्तेब

kā-chi-gā-m-mi, mine and kis.

ikin, I and you.
iking, my and your.

iking, my and your.
ikim-mi, mine and yours.

ānin, you. ānim, āninim, your. anim-mi, yours. kho-chi, mo-chi, they.
kho-chi-m, mo-chi-m, their.
kho-chi-m-mi, mo-chi-m-mi,
theirs.

ik-kā, I and they.
 ikkā-m, my and their.
 ikkām-mi, mine and theirs.

It will be seen that the plural forms of the third person are dual by origin.

The pronouns of the third person are also used as demonstratives; thus, $k\bar{\nu}\bar{o}$, this; $m\bar{o}\bar{o}$, that, etc.

Interrogative pronouns are āsā and āsā-lo, who? ūkka, what? The same bases occur in the indefinite pronouns āsā-ne, anybody; ūkhāng, anything.

Verbs.—We are very unsatisfactorily informed about the use of pronominal suffixes in order to denote the person and number of the subject and object and about the formation of tenses.

A dual and a plural subject of the second person with an imperative are indicated by adding chi, nin, respectively; thus, cho, eat; cha-chi, eat ye two; cha-nin, eat ye.

An object of the first person singular is indicated by adding the suffix $ng\bar{a}$ in pi- $ng\bar{a}$, give me. The t in pi-t-tu, give him, is perhaps a corresponding suffix of the third person.

The form henge, it is, yes, seems to show that a suffix e is used to form a present.

The base alone can be used as an imperative; thus, $n\bar{a}$, take; $y\bar{e}pok$, stand up. Other imperatives end in o and u or a; thus, $d\bar{u}ngo$, drink; lomu, strike; $d\bar{u}ba$, come. The suffix o or u is changed to a before the suffixes chi and nin of the dual and plural; thus, $d\bar{u}ngo$, drink; $d\bar{u}nga$ -nin, drink ye.

There is apparently a negative suffix ne; thus, kē-nga-ne, it is not, no. An infix ni occurs in words such as nū-ni-ne, good not, bad. In mā-tūpti, not ripe, raw, we apparently have a prefix mā. The negative with imperatives is a prefixed na.

SÄNGPÄNG.

The Sangpangs are one of the Khambu septs of Majh, or Middle, Kirant, i.e. the country between the Likha and Arun rivers.

AUTHORITY-

Hodgson, B. H., —Continuation of the Comparative Vocabulary of the several Dialects of the Kirántes Language. Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. xxvi, 1857, pp. 350 and ff. Reprinted in Miscellaneous Essays relating to Indian Subjects. Vol. i, London, 1880, pp. 194 and ff.

Sangpang is closely connected with Düngmali, Bălâli, the Bontawa dialects, etc.

Nouns.—The prefix um in um-pā, father; um-dhābmi, husband; um-lēpa, day, and so on, is by origin a demonstrative pronoun; compare um, his, her, its.

Gender is distinguished by using different terms, or else by adding suffixes or words indicating the sex. Thus, *m-pa*, father; *m-ma* and *ma*, mother: *wachchka*, man;

 $m\bar{\imath}m\bar{\alpha}$ - $chh\bar{a}$, woman : $p\bar{a}$ -sang and $p\bar{a}$ -syung, old man ; $m\bar{a}$ -sang and $m\bar{a}$ -syung, old woman : $s\tilde{a}l\tilde{a}$, young man ; $s\tilde{a}l\tilde{a}$ -me, young woman : $(\bar{u}m$ - $)dh\bar{a}bmi$, husband ; $y\bar{u}$, wife : $w\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{a}$, cock ; $w\bar{a}$ - $m\bar{a}$, hen : $\bar{u}m$ - $p\bar{a}$ $h\bar{a}\bar{a}ga$, or $h\bar{o}ga$, dog ; $\bar{u}m$ - $m\bar{a}$ $h\bar{a}\bar{a}ga$, or $h\bar{o}ga$, bitch : $w\bar{a}chchh\bar{a}$ - $chh\bar{a}$, son ; $m\bar{i}m\bar{a}chh\bar{a}$ - $chh\bar{a}$, daughter.

There are three numbers, the singular, the dual, and the plural. The suffix $ch\bar{i}$, which appears to be a dual suffix, is also added in the plural; thus, $\bar{u}mm\bar{a}$ $m\bar{a}ni$ - $m\bar{a}$ - $ch\bar{i}$, female cats.

The genitive is expressed by putting the governed before the governing word without any suffix; thus, $pich-chh\bar{a}$, cow's young, calf. The suffix mi, mu, can be added; thus, $t\bar{a}$ -mu $s\bar{a}m$, head-of hair. It is by origin a demonstrative pronoun; compare Bāhing mi.

Other relations are indicated by means of postpositions. Such are $p\bar{i}$, in, with; $pi-k\bar{a}$, from; \bar{a} , by; mand and $m\bar{a}n$, without, etc.

Numerals.—The first numerals are given in the table on p. 342. The forms ending in pang are used with reference to human beings; those ending in li with reference to animals; thus, eukla-pang mīna, one man; sum-kala-pang mīna, three men; eu-li pi, one cow; hisali pi, two cows; sam-kali pi, three cows.

Pronouns.—The following are the personal pronouns:—

kāngā, I.	ānā, thou.	mo-ko, me-ko, he, she, it.
ã, my.	ām, thy.	ūm, mek'um, his, her, its.
ãa-mi, mine.	ām-mi, thine.	me-ko-mi, his, hers, its.
kā-chī, I and thou.	ānā-chī, you two.	mōkō-chi, me-ko-chi hippang, they two.
\bar{u} - $ch\bar{u}$, my and thy.	ām-chū, your two.	meko-hippang-chi-m, me-ko-chi hippang-mi, their two.
$k\bar{a}$ -chī- $k\bar{a}$, I and he.		
\tilde{a} -ch \tilde{u} , my and his.		
kāyī, kaye, I and you.	ānā-ni, you.	meko-mi, meko-chi, they.
$y\bar{e}$, my and your.	ām-nū, your.	
$k\bar{a}$ - ni , $k\bar{a}$ - $k\bar{i}$ - $k\bar{a}$, I and they. ang - $k\bar{a}$, my and their.		meko-chi-m, their.

The form meko-chi, they, is by origin a dual. The suffix mi can be added to the genitive of all pronouns; thus, ang-kā-mi, mine and theirs.

The pronouns of the third person are also used as demonstrative pronouns; thus, moko and $moko-ng\bar{a}$, that. The nearer demonstrative is noko or $noko-ng\bar{a}$, this.

Interrogative pronouns are $\bar{a}s\bar{a}$ and $\bar{a}s\bar{a}le$, who? yen, what? $y\tilde{a}-pi$, why? $h\bar{a}-pi$, when? and so on. The indefinite particle is $s\bar{a}ng$, also; thus, $\bar{a}s\bar{a}-s\bar{a}ng$, anybody; $y\tilde{o}-s\bar{a}ng$, anything.

Verbs.—We are very unsatisfactorily informed about the use of pronominal suffixes in order to denote the person and number of the subject and object, and about the formation of tenses.

The sullixes chu, or chi, num or ni, respectively, are added to an imperative in order to denote a subject of the second person dual and plural, respectively. Thus, chō, eat; cho-chu, eat ye two; cho-num, eat ye: dūngū, drink; dūngū-chu, drink ye two; dūnga-

num, drink ye: pīyū, give him; pīyū-chi, give ye two; pīyū-ni, give ye: bānā, come; lānā-chi, come ye two; lānā-ni, come ye.

The suffix $\tilde{a}n$, i.e. probably \tilde{a} , is used to indicate an object of the first person singular in $p\tilde{z}$ - $\tilde{a}n$, give me.

The forms $y\bar{e}$, in-claims and in-ugā, it is, yes, seem to show that the base alone, and with one of the suffixes chling and ugā, can be used as a present.

The more base is also used as an imperative; thus, $n\bar{e}$, take; $m\bar{o}$, do. Other imperatives are founded by adding \bar{o} , \bar{u} , and \bar{a} ; thus, $ch\bar{o}$, eat; $d\bar{a}ng\bar{-u}$, drink; yosu, strike; $ips\bar{a}$, shown; $b\bar{u}n\bar{a}$, come, etc. We do not know anything about the meaning of the consonants preceding the final vowel of such imperatives.

The negative particle is a prefixed met or man; thus, met-nā, not-is, no; man-duwako, not ripe, raw. Hedgeon also mentions a negative suffix īsi. Isi also means 'bad.' The negative with imperatives is na.

LÖHÖRÖNG.

The home of the Löhöröng Khambus is the so-called Wallo, or Hither, Kirant, i.e. the hills between the Sunkosi and the Likhu.

AUTHORITIES-

Hodgson, B. H.,—Continuation of the Comparative Vocabulary of the several Dialects of the Kirántes Lunguage. Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal. Vol. xxvi. 1887, pp. 350 and ff. Reprinted in Miscellaneous Essays relating to Indian Subjects. Vol. i. London. 1889, pp. 194 and ff.

HURTER, W. W.,-A Comparative Dictionary of the Languages of India and High Asia. London, 1868

Löhöröng is most closely related to Bālāli and connected dialects.

Nouns.—The prefix $\bar{u}m$ in $\bar{u}m'p\bar{a}$, father; $\bar{u}m'm\bar{a}$, mother, etc., is identical with the pronoun $\bar{u}m$, his, her, its.

Gender is distinguished by using different words or by adding suffixes or words such as $\bar{u}m'p\bar{a}$, $umpr\bar{u}pa$, male; $\bar{u}m'm\bar{a}$, $ummr\bar{u}ma$, female. Thus, $\bar{u}m'p\bar{a}$, father; $\bar{u}m'm\bar{a}$, mother: $n\bar{u}p\bar{a}$, husband; $n\bar{u}-m\bar{a}$, wife: $w\bar{a}th\bar{a}ppa$ and $w\bar{u}thanpa$, man; $men\bar{u}mm\bar{a}$, woman: $wench\bar{a}$, young man; $l\bar{a}ngm\bar{e}$, young woman: $w\bar{a}th\bar{a}ppa$ $pas\bar{a}$, son; $men\bar{u}mm\bar{a}$ $pas\bar{a}$, daughter: $\bar{u}m'p\bar{a}$, or $umpr\bar{u}pa$, $h\bar{u}k'w\bar{a}$, a dog; $\bar{u}m'm\bar{a}$, or $ummr\bar{u}ma$, $h\bar{u}k'w\bar{a}$, a bitch: $umpr\bar{u}pa$ $w\bar{a}$, cock; $w\bar{a}-mr\bar{u}p'ma$, hen: $pi'pas\bar{a}$, male calf; $pi'mas\bar{a}$, female calf.

There are three numbers, the singular, the dual, and the plural. The suffix chi is said to be used both in the dual and in the plural; thus, mik', eye, dual and plural mi'chi. In the case of adjectives we find a dual suffix chia and a separate plural suffix miha; thus, nūyē, good, dual nuk-chia, plural nuk-miha.

The genitive is expressed by putting the governed before the governing word without any suffix; thus, $pi'pas\bar{a}$, cow's young, calf. If the governing word is understood, the suffix mi is added; thus, $k\bar{a}ng\bar{a}-mi$, mine.

Other relations are indicated by adding postpositions, such as bz, $b\bar{a}$, in; $b\bar{a}ng$, $p\bar{a}ng$, from; \bar{e} , $y\bar{e}$, by; $n\bar{u}ng$, with, and so on.

Numerals.—The first numerals are given in the table on p. 342. The forms ending in pang, bang, are used when the qualified noun denotes male or female vol. III, part I.

individuals, those ending in chi are neuter. It will be seen that higher numbers are counted in tens.

Pronouns.—The following are the personal pronouns:—

# 10#0 mm	1 1	
$k\bar{a}ng\bar{a}, k\bar{a}, I.$	$h\bar{a}n\bar{a}$, $\bar{a}n\bar{a}$, thou.	mo - nu , mi , $m\bar{o}$, he, she, it.
ūng, my.	$\bar{a}m$, thy.	um, his, her, its.
kāngā-mi, mine.	<i>hānā-mi</i> , thine.	mo-mi, meyem-mi, his.
kā-chi, I and thou.	hānā-chi, ānā-chi, hūn- chi-na, you two.	mo-chi, māhā-chi, they two.
kā-chi-m, en'-chi, my and		
thy.		
kā-chī-mi, en'chi-mi, mine and thine.	am-chi, ānā-chi-m, ān-chi- na-m, your.	um-chi, māhā-chi-m, their.
kā-chi-ka, I and he.		
kā-chi-kām, ung-chi, my	am-chi-mi, ān-chi-nā-mi,	um-chi-mi, mā-hā-chi-mi, theirs.
and his.	yours.	
kā-chi-kāmi, ung-chi-mi, mine and his.		
kā-ni, I and you.	hā-n i- nā, ā-ni-nā, kang- nā, you.	mīhā-na, mīhā-chi, they.
kā-ni-m, en-ni, my and your.	am-ni, hān-nā-m, hā-ni- nā-m, your.	um-chi, mīhā-chi-m, their.
kā-ni-mi, mine and yours.		
$k\bar{a}$ -ning- $k\bar{a}$, I and they.	hān-nam-mi, hā-ni-nā-mi, yours.	um-chi-mi, mī-hā-chim-mi, theirs.
kā-ning-kām, en-ni, my and their.		
kā-ning-kam-mi, mine and theirs.		

It will be seen that the dual and the plural are confounded in the third person, as in the case of nouns. It looks as if the dual were gradually giving way to the plural. Our materials are, however, insufficient for arriving at a definite result.

 $M\bar{o}$, he, is also used as a demonstrative pronoun meaning 'that.' The corresponding nearer demonstrative is $\bar{i}go$, this. The real base is \bar{i} , and the suffix go can also be added to $m\bar{o}$; thus, $m\bar{o}go\text{-}chi$, they. The dual of $\bar{i}go$ is given as iga-chi, these two.

Interrogative pronouns are $\bar{a}s\bar{a}$, who? $im\bar{a}ng$, what? They can be changed to indefinite pronouns by adding $s\bar{a}ng$; thus, $\bar{a}s\bar{a}-s\bar{a}ng$, anyone; $im\bar{a}ng-s\bar{a}ng$, anything.

Verbs.—The subject of the verb is probably indicated by adding pronominal suffixes; thus, limuk-nga, I am sweet; khik-nga and khik-ti-nga, I am bitter; dūng-ē, drink thou; dūnga-che, drink ye two; dūnga-ne, drink ye. Our information about the matter is not sufficient. There seems to be a suffix nga denoting a subject of the first person singular. In the imperative, a dual or plural subject is indicated by adding che, ne, respectively. Those forms are identical with the dual and plural suffix of personal pronouns. An m is sometimes inserted before the n of the plural; thus, sede, kill; seda-che, kill ye two; sedam-ne, kill ye.

A suffix ng is also used to denote an object of the first person; thus, $pi-ng-\bar{e}$, give me. The t in $pit-t-\bar{e}$, give him, is perhaps a corresponding suffix of the third person.

Forms such as $m\bar{v} n\bar{u}$, that is good; $\bar{v}go n\bar{v}$, this is good; medding, it is not, show that the base alone can be used as a present. We have no other information about the formation of the arious tenses.

The suffix of the imperative is e, dual a-che, plural a-ne or am-ne; thus, dabe, come; daba-che, come ye two; daba-ne, come ye; lome, strike; loma-che, strike ye two; lomam-ne, strike ye.

Causals are formed by suffixing mette; thus, dung-mette, cause him to drink; immette, cause him to sleep.

The negative particle is apparently a prefixed me; thus, medding, not-is, without. A suffixed ni is used in words such as $n\bar{a}\cdot ni$, good-not, bad. A negative imperative is formed by prefixing e'; thus, e'- $d\bar{u}be$ and e'- $t\bar{o}nge$, do not make.

LAMBICHHONG.

The Lāmbichhöng Khambus are a sept of the Wāling Bontāwas. They are found in the so-called Mājh, or Middle, Kirānt, i.e. the hills between the Likhu and Ārun rivers.

AUTHORITY-

Hodgson, B. H.,—Continuation of the Comparative Vocabulary of the several Dialects of the Kirántee Language. Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. xxvi, 1857, pp. 350 and ff. Reprinted in Miscellaneous Essays relating to Indian Subjects. Vol. i, London, 1880, pp. 194 and ff.

Nouns.—The prefix $\bar{\imath}$ and $\bar{\imath}m$ in words such as $\bar{\imath}$ -chhā and chhā, child; $\bar{\imath}$ -thin and thin, egg; $\bar{\imath}$ -lēmba, day; $\bar{\imath}m$ -pā, father; $\bar{\imath}m$ -mā, mother, etc., is by origin a pronoun; compare $\bar{\imath}m$, his, her, its. The same is the case with \bar{o} in words such as $\bar{\imath}mp\bar{a}$ \bar{o} -phak and $\bar{\imath}mp\bar{a}$ phak, a boar; compare $\bar{a}o$ -khā, yo-khā, etc., they.

Gender is distinguished by using different terms, or else by adding suffixes or words indicating the sex. Thus, $p\bar{a}$ and $p\bar{a}chhi$, man; $m\bar{a}chhi$, woman: $y\bar{e}m'b\bar{a}$, husband; $m\bar{e}ch-chh\bar{a}$, wife: $\bar{i}mp\bar{a}$, father; $\bar{i}mm\bar{a}$, mother: $p\bar{a}-h\bar{u}-ba$, an old man; $m\bar{a}-hu-ma$, an old woman: $w\bar{a}ngchab\bar{a}ng$, a young man; $k\bar{a}m-rum-m\bar{e}$, a young woman: $y\bar{e}m'ba-chh\bar{a}$, son; $m\bar{e}chh\bar{a}-chh\bar{a}$, daughter: $n\bar{o}w\bar{a}$ $\bar{i}mp\bar{a}$ and $\bar{i}mp\bar{a}$ $n\bar{o}w\bar{a}$, a male bird; $n\bar{o}w\bar{a}$ $\bar{i}mm\bar{a}$ and $\bar{i}mm\bar{a}$ $n\bar{o}w\bar{a}$, a female bird: $\bar{i}mp\bar{a}$ $\bar{o}-pit'$ and $\bar{i}mp\bar{a}$ pit', bull; $\bar{i}mm\bar{a}$ $\bar{o}-pih'$, cow.

We have no information about the suffixes added in the dual and the plural. The suffix chhi in chhā-chhi, child; pā-chhi, man; mā-chhi, woman, is perhaps a dual suffix.

The genitive is expressed by putting the governed before the governing word and inserting the possessive pronoun corresponding to the former before the latter; thus, pit'i-chhā, cow its-young, calf; sing-i-tāngli, wood-its-plant, tree. The possessive pronoun can be dropped; thus, tang phūkwa, head hair, the hair of the head; wā-thin, bird's egg. The suffix khā, of, is probably identical with the final kha in numerous adjectives, such as nūyukkha, good; kūyū-kha, hot, etc. It seems to be used when the governing word is understood; thus, kā-khā, mine. Ngāka, of, is perhaps miswritten for ngākhā, and contains the suffix ngā, by. Compare āko-ngā-khā, his, hers, its.

Other relations are indicated by adding postpositions such as $ng\bar{a}$, by; $b\bar{e}$, in; behong, from; lok, with; $m\bar{a}ngchhi$, without, and so on.

Numerals.—The first three numerals are found in the table on p. 342. The forms ending in bang and pang are only used when rational beings are counted. The suffixes li and chi are used with reference to other nouns. 'Ten' is ippong as in Löhöröng and Bālāli.

Pronouns.—The following are the personal pronouns:—

kāngā, kā, I.	khānā, thou.	āko, yonā, monā, tonā, he, she,
ang, ũng, úm, my. kã-khã, mine.	ā, am, an, thy. khānā-khā, thine.	it. i , $\bar{\imath}m$, his, hers, its. $yon\bar{a}$ - $ng\bar{a}$ - $kh\bar{a}$, etc., his, hers, its.
 kān-chhī, I and thou, my and thy. kān-chhī-ngā, I and he, my and his. 	khānā-chhī, you two, your two.	yonā-chhī, etc., they two, their two.
kā-ni, I and you, my and your.	khānā-nī, you, your.	yo-khā, etc., they, their.
kā-ni-ngā, I and they, my and their.		

The pronouns of the third person are originally demonstrative pronouns. Such are also $n\tilde{a}$ and $n\tilde{a}rok$, this; $y\tilde{o}n\tilde{a}$ and $y\tilde{o}n\tilde{a}-rok$, that; $oukh\tilde{a}$ and $\tilde{a}ukha$, that, etc.

The use of the possessive pronouns with nouns has already been mentioned. Compare also $\bar{a}ko$ im-sing-i-tangli nuyuk-nin-kha, $k\bar{a}$ -khā-ng-sing-i-tangli nuyuk-kha, he his-tree good-not, mine-my-tree good, his tree is not good, my tree is good. Possessive pronouns are also $y\bar{o}n\bar{a}$ - $ng\bar{a}$ -khā and $\bar{a}ko$ - $ng\bar{a}$ -khā, his, hers, its; $\bar{a}u$ -kha-chhi- $ng\bar{a}$ -khā, of them two, etc.

Interrogative pronouns are $s\bar{e}$ -ong, who? $th\bar{i}$ -ya, what? Indefinite pronouns are formed by adding $chh\bar{a}$ to the interrogative bases. Thus, $s\bar{i}$ - $chh\bar{a}$, anyone; $th\bar{i}$ - $chh\bar{a}$, anything

Verbs.—We do not know how the various tenses are formed. Forms such as nuyuk-nin-kha, not-good, it is not good, show that the base alone can be used as a present.

We have not sufficient information about the use of pronominal suffixes to indicate the person and number of the subject and the object. A dual and a plural subject with imperatives is indicated by adding chu or chi, nu (num) or ni, respectively; thus, thunga-chu, drink ye two; thunga-num, drink ye: pira-chu, give ye two; pira-nu, give ye: thāba-chi, come ye two; thāba-ni, come ye. We do not know how the forms containing an i are distinguished from those containing a u. The latter are perhaps the transitive forms.

A suffix ig is used to denote an object of the first person singular in pi- $r\bar{a}$ -ng, give me; pi-ra-ni-ng, give me ye two; pi-ra-ni-ng, give me ye.

The suffix of the imperative is apparently a; thus, thunga, drink; pira, give; thapta, bring. The suffixes of the dual and plural have already been mentioned. Note choh', eat; dual chasa-chu, plural chasa-num.

The negative particle is a prefixed $m\bar{a}$; thus, $m\bar{a}-h\bar{a}$, $m\bar{a}-le$, not-is, no. A negative suffix nin is used in adjectives such as nnynh-lin-hha, good-not, had. The negative imperative is formed by prefixing any and suffixing -n.

WALING.

The Wäling sept of the Bontawa Khambus live in what Holgson calls Majh Kirant or Middle Kirant, i.e. the hills between the Likhu and Arun rivers.

AUTHORITIES-

Hausson, B. H.,—Comparative Vacabulary of the several Languages (dialous) of the relebrated people called Kirdatis, now comparing the Masterberrost province of the kingdom of New II, or the basis of the river Arun, which produce a name is, for then, Kirdat. Fournal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. xxvi. 1887, yr. 200 and fir. Reprinted in Mistallaneous Essaya relating to Indian Suificis. Vol. i. London, 188. yr. 178 and fir.

Hunter, W. W.,—A Comparative Dirton in of the Languages of Irála en l'High Asia. London, 1868.

Nouns.—The prefix \tilde{a} in words such as \tilde{a} - $p\tilde{a}$, father; \tilde{a} - $d\tilde{a}$ va, man, and so on, is probably a demonstrative pronoun.

Gender is distinguished by using different words or by means of additions meaning 'male,' 'female,' respectively. Thus, $\bar{a}-p\bar{a}$, father; $\bar{a}-m\bar{a}$, mother: $\bar{a}-d\bar{u}wa$ and $d\bar{u}wa$, man; $\bar{a}-d\bar{u}-m\bar{a}$, woman: $p\bar{u}-sang$, old man; $m\bar{a}-sang$, old woman: $\bar{u}-p\bar{a}-sang$, husband; $\bar{a}-m\bar{a}-sang$, wife: $d\bar{u}wa-chh\bar{a}$, son; $m\bar{a}-chh\bar{a}$, daughter: phang'ta, young man; $k\bar{a}mechh\bar{a}$, young woman: $w\bar{a}-p\bar{a}$, ceck; $w\bar{a}-m\bar{a}$, hen: $\bar{a}-pa$ kochuwā, dog; $\bar{a}-ma$ kochumā, bitch: $\bar{a}-po$ chhongwā, a male bird; $\bar{a}-ma$ chhongwā, a female bird.

We have no information about the use of suffixes for marking the dual and the plural.

The genitive is apparently formed by prefixing the governed to the governing word without any suffix; thus, tāng mūwa, head hair, the hair of the head; bākara chhāchi, goat's young, kid. Other relations are indicated by means of postpositions. Such are ā, by; pi, edā, and inan, with; dā, idā, inan, and pe, in; pangkwa, from; dāngkā, towards; mochhi, without, and so on.

The first six numerals are found in the table on p. 342. They are apparently most closely connected with the forms in use in Rüngchhenbüng.

Pronouns.—The following are the personal pronouns:—

ang-ka, ing-ka, I. hānā, khānā, thou. aya, haya-ko, mo-ko, he, she, it. am, thy. ā, my. am-pik, thine. hayek-pik, his, hers, its. āng-pik, mine. haya-ni, moko-ni, hāyāk, they. i-kā, ū-kā, ing-kai, ingkānā-ni, you. ka-ni, I and you. kong-kai-ka, I and they. hayekka-pik, your. hāyanka-pik, their. āng-ka-pik, our.

Some of these forms are rather suspicious. None of them appear to be dual forms, though there cannot be any doubt that such forms exist.

Angka, ingka, I, correspond to the forms in use in Rüngchhenbüng and Düngmäli. The final pik in any-pik, mine, etc., corresponds to bi in the latter dislect.

suffix is ni, corresponding to nin in Rüngchhenbüng and Düngmali, ni in Lambichhong, etc.

Demonstrative pronouns are \bar{o} - $ng\bar{a}$, \bar{o} -ko, and i-pi- $ng\bar{a}$, this; $kh\bar{o}$ - $ng\bar{a}$, $kh\bar{o}$ -ko, and hayaya, that.

Interrogative pronouns are dei, who? tikwa, what? $kh\bar{a}\bar{u}$, which? tem and dem, how much? $d\bar{e}h\bar{a}n\bar{a}$, why? The indefinite particle $kchh\bar{u}$ makes interrogative pronouns indefinite. It occurs in forms such as ti- $ikchh\bar{u}$, anything; asa- $kchh\bar{u}$, anybody.

Verbs.—We have no materials for judging about the formation of tenses or the marking of the person and number of the subject by means of pronominal suffixes. Forms such as \bar{o} and \bar{a} , yes, literally 'it-is,' show that the base alone is used as a present. The bases \bar{a} and \bar{o} , to be, are probably identical with the bases of the demonstrative pronouns \bar{o} -ko, this; a-ya, it. Other bases of the copula are in and ang' in $m\bar{a}$ -in and $m\bar{a}$ -ang', it is not, no.

The form $p\bar{u}$ -ang, give me, shows that the suffix ang can be used to indicate an object of the first person singular.

Imperatives end in u or o, and a; thus, $b\bar{a}ttu$, take; $s\bar{e}ru$, kill; $y\bar{u}ng'su$, put down; $y\bar{e}nu$, hear; $d\bar{u}ngo$, drink; cho, eat; im'sa, sleep; $kh\bar{a}ra$, go; $y\bar{u}nga$, sit; thing'ta, wake; $ch\bar{e}wa$, speak; $b\bar{a}na$, come, and so on. The base alone is also used as an imperative; thus, $p\bar{u}$, give; $n\bar{e}$, take.

The negative particle is a prefixed $m\bar{a}$; thus, $m\bar{a}$ -in and $m\bar{a}$ -ang', it is not, no. $M\bar{a}y\bar{e}$ or $m\bar{a}i$ is used instead with an imperative. Hodgson also mentions a negative suffix \bar{i} , but he does not give any instance of its use.

CHHINGTANG.

The Chhingtang sept of the Bontawa Khambus are found in the tract called Wallo Kirant, between the Sunkhosi and the Likhu river.

AUTHORITY-

Hodgson, B. H.,—Comparative Vocabulary of the several Languages (dialects) of the calebrated people called Kirántis, now occupying the Eastern-most province of the kingdom of Népál, or the basin of the river Arun, which province is named after them, Kiránt. Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. xxvi, 1857, pp. 333 and ff. Reprinted in Miscellaneous Essays relating to Indian Subjects. Vol. i, London, 1880, pp. 176 and ff.

Our information about Chhingtang grammar is very unsatisfactory, and it is only possible to judge about some few points.

Nouns.—The natural gender is distinguished in the usual way, by means of separate words or of qualifying additions; thus, $p\bar{a}$, man; $m\bar{a}ch\bar{e}$, woman: \bar{u} - $p\bar{a}$, father; \bar{u} - $m\bar{a}$, mother: $chh\bar{a}i$, son; $m\bar{e}ch$ $chh\bar{a}$ $chh\bar{a}$, daughter: \bar{u} - $p\bar{a}$ ko- $ch\bar{u}v\bar{a}$, dog; \bar{u} -ma $koch\bar{u}v\bar{a}$, bitch: $b\bar{u}dha$ - $p\bar{a}$, old man; $b\bar{u}dhi$ - $m\bar{a}$, old woman: $v\bar{a}nch\bar{a}$ - $b\bar{a}ng$, young man; $k\bar{a}$ - $m\bar{e}ch$ $chh\bar{a}$, young woman.

The prefix \bar{u} in words such as \bar{u} - $p\bar{a}$, father; \bar{u} - $m\bar{a}$, mother, etc., is by origin a demonstrative pronoun.

We have no information about the formation of the higher numbers.

Cases are formed by adding suffixes such as $ng\bar{a}$ for the instrumental and ablative, be and pe for the locative. Instances of the locative are $\bar{u}i\bar{e}n-be$, above; $\bar{u}rh\bar{x}-be$, between; $\bar{u}-k\bar{u}m-be$, in the interior, within.

The genitive is expressed by putting the governed before the governing word, and sometimes repeating the former by means of a pronominal prefix before the latter; thus, mendi bachhā, goat's young, kid; tang'plākea, hair of the head; bhēdi ū-pā-chhā, sheep its-male-young, a male lamb.

The first three numerals will be found in the comparative vocabulary on p. 342. It will be seen that they closely agree with the forms occurring in Lämbichhöng.

Pronouns.—The following are the personal pronouns:—

 $\bar{a}k\bar{u}$, I. $h\bar{a}n\bar{a}$, thou mogwa, yoko, he, she, it. \bar{a} , my. $h\bar{a}n\bar{a}$, $h\bar{a}n\bar{a}$ -yakkwā, thy, \bar{u} , his, her, its. thine.

akoo, akwa, mine.

kānanā, kāngāna, we.

hānā-nina, you.

kānungā-ikkwā, our.

hāni-yakkwā, your.

mogicasēkkicā, his, hers, its.

mogo-na, they.

hūngcheikkwā, their.

It will be seen that the suffix of the plural is na. The form hūngcheikkucā, their, is perhaps a dual; compare the dual suffix chi in Lāmbichhōng and connected dialects.

The forms $k\bar{a}$ -na- $n\bar{a}$ and $k\bar{a}ng\bar{a}$ -na, we, are apparently formed from singulars corresponding to Lāmbichhōng $k\bar{a}ng\bar{a}$ and $k\bar{a}$, I. The plural suffix is na, and the final $n\bar{a}$ in $k\bar{a}$ -na- $n\bar{a}$, we, perhaps corresponds to Lāmbichhōng $ng\bar{a}$ which is added to the dual and plural of the first person if the person addressed is excluded; thus, $k\bar{a}$ -ni, I and you; $k\bar{a}$ -ni- $ng\bar{a}$, I and they.

The form $h\bar{a}ni$ -y-akkwā, your, shows that the plural suffix also has the form ni. Hānā-nina, you, is perhaps a misprint for $h\bar{a}n\bar{a}$ -ni, -na, i.e. $h\bar{a}n\bar{a}$ -ni, $h\bar{a}n\bar{a}$ -na. Compare the forms khana-nin and khana-na, you, in Rūngchhēnbūng.

Demonstrative pronouns are ōkō, bago, and nago, this; khōkhō and mogo, that.

Interrogative pronouns are $s\bar{a}l\bar{v}$, who? $hokkog\bar{v}$, which? $th\bar{e}m$, what? They can be changed to indefinites by adding $y\bar{a}ng$, also; thus, $s\bar{a}l\bar{v}-y\bar{a}ng$, anybody; $th\bar{e}m-y\bar{a}ng$, anything.

Verbs.—We do not know if the person and number of the subject is indicated by adding pronominal suffixes to the verb. The object is sometimes marked in this way, for we find the suffix ang, me, added in $p\bar{u}$ -ang, give me.

The base alone is apparently used as a present; thus, $y\bar{e}$, or $y\bar{e}t$, it is, yes. We have not, however, any information about the formation of the various tenses.

The base alone is used as an imperative; thus, $p\bar{u}$, give. Usually, however, the imperative ends in a, commonly preceded by some consonant; thus, $ch\bar{o}a$, ch

The negative particle is a prefixed $m\bar{a}$; thus, $m\bar{a}-h\bar{a}$, not-is, no. Before imperatives $m\bar{a}$ is interchangeable with $th\bar{a}$. Another negative is said to be formed by means of an infix i.

RUNGCHHENBUNG.

The Rüngchhenbung sub-tribe of the Bontawa Khambus is stated to dwell in Middle Kîrant, i.e. in the Himalaya between the Likhu and Ārun rivers.

AUTHORITIES-

Hodgson, B. H.,—Comparative Vocabulary of the several Languages (dialects) of the celebrated people called Kirántis, now occupying the Eastern-most province of the kingdom of Népál, or the basin of the river Árun, which province is named after them, Kiránt. Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. xxvi, 1857, pp. 333 and ff. Reprinted in Miscellaneous Essays relating to Indian Subjects. Vol. i, London, 1880, pp. 176 and ff.

HUNTER, W. W.,-A Comparative Dictionary of the Languages of India and High Asia. London, 1868.

Nouns.—Many nouns contain a prefix which occurs in the forms \bar{u} , \bar{o} and eu. Eu is said to be pronounced as the eu in French 'jeu.' It seems, however, probable that it should rather be written \bar{u} and pronounced as u in French 'lune.' Instances of the use of this prefix are \bar{u} -chho, arm; eu-tāng, head; \bar{u} -pā, \bar{o} -pā, and eu-pā, father; \bar{u} -dīng, egg; \bar{u} -bhē, arrow. This prefix is originally a demonstrative pronoun.

Another common prefix is $s\bar{a}$, which originally means 'flesh'; thus, $s\bar{a}$ -hokwa, skin; $s\bar{a}$ -yūba, bone.

There is no grammatical gender. The natural gender is distinguished by using different terms or else by adding words meaning 'male' and 'female,' respectively; thus, $d\bar{u}wachh\bar{a}$, man; $m\bar{e}chchhachh\bar{a}$, woman: \bar{o} - $p\bar{a}$, father; \bar{o} - $m\bar{a}$, 'mother: \bar{o} - $p\bar{a}$ $k\bar{o}ch\bar{u}w\bar{a}$, dog; \bar{o} - $m\bar{a}$ $k\bar{o}ch\bar{u}w\bar{a}$, bitch: $d\bar{u}wachh\bar{a}$ - $chh\bar{a}$, son; $m\bar{e}chchhachh\bar{a}chh\bar{a}$, daughter: $b\bar{u}dh\bar{a}$ - $kh\bar{o}k$ - $p\bar{a}$, old man; $b\bar{u}dh\bar{a}$ - $kh\bar{o}k$ - $m\bar{a}$, old woman.

There are no instances available of the marking of number in the case of nouns. Adjectives have three numbers, the singular, the dual, and the plural. The dual is formed by suffixing chi and the plural by prefixing ma; thus, $n\bar{u}vo$, good, dual $n\bar{u}vo$ -chi, plural ma- $n\bar{u}vo$. Such forms probably only occur if the adjective is used as a noun, and we can therefore describe the suffix chi as that of the dual, and the prefix ma as forming a plural of nouns.

The case of the agent and the instrumental is formed by adding \bar{a} and ya; the suffix of the locative is $d\bar{a}$, and that of the ablative $d\bar{a}ngk\bar{a}$. The genitive is formed by simply prefixing the governed to governing noun; thus, $p\bar{\imath}\ y\bar{u}wa$, cow's bone; $w\bar{a}\ d\bar{\imath}n$, fowl's egg. The governed noun can be repeated by means of a pronominal prefix; thus, $bh\bar{e}d\bar{a}$ $um\text{-}chh\bar{a}$, sheep its-young, lamb.

Other relations are indicated by adding postpositions. Such are $chak-d\bar{a}$, side-in, near; $chok-d\bar{a}$, $dung-d\bar{a}$, on, upon; it'nan, with; $m\bar{a}dang$, mandang, without, and so on.

Adjectives.—Adjectives precede the word they qualify; thus, euk-chhā nūvo mana, a good man; euk-pop nūvo chupi, a good knife. Some adjectives are, however, stated to be sometimes also put after the qualified noun.

Numerals.—The first numerals will be found in the table on p. 342. They precede the noun they qualify; thus, euk- $chh\bar{a}$ $n\bar{u}voo$ mana, one good man. It will be seen from the table that the numerals have more than one form, different suffixes being added. These suffixes are probably all generic particles. Thus, $chh\bar{a}$, and probably also wang, denote human beings, and pop denotes things. Forms such as eukta, one; heu-sa, two; $s\bar{u}m$ -ya, three, are unchangeable.

Pronouns.—The following are the personal pronouns:-

ung-ka, ang-ka, ang, I. khāna, thou.

oko, moko, euhyako, euyauko, he, she, it.

ang, my. em, thy.

o, u, eu, his, her, its.

ang-ko, mine. ung-ka-cheu-a, I and he. am-ko, thine. mo-80, yan-80, his, hers, its. oko-chi, moko-chi, euyako-chi,

they two.

ung-ka-chi, I and thou.

khana-chi, you two.

ung-kan-ka, I and they.

ung-kan, I and you.

āinkīca, our.

kkana-nin, khana-na, you. amno, your.

moko, they. myāūcho, their.

Oko, this; moko, that, are also demonstrative pronouns. When used as adjectives, they have the form ō, mō, respectively. Another demonstrative is khokho, that person,

Interrogative pronouns are sang, who? sang-ye, which? khānca, which? diye, what? dena, why? Indefinite pronouns are formed by adding chhang to interrogatives; thus, sang-chhang, anybody; di-chhang, anything.

Verbs.—The number of the subject is said to be indicated in the verb, but we are not told how. Nor have we any information as to whether the person of the subject is marked by means of suffixes added to the verb.

The object is apparently sometimes indicated by means of a suffix. The only instance in the materials available is $p\bar{u}$ - $\bar{a}ng$, give me; $p\bar{u}$ -ch-ang, give me you two; pū-n-ang, give me ye, which contains a suffix ang, me.

The final nga in ang-nga, yes, is probably a copula, and the literal meaning of ang-nga is perhaps 'being-is,' 'it is so.' The copula nga is only used in such sentences as state that some action really takes place. It is therefore dropped in negative clauses; thus, mā-āng, not-is, no.

We are not informed about the suffixes of the different tenses.

The suffix of the imperative is \bar{o} or u, or a in the singular; thus, $ch\bar{o}$, eat; $s\bar{e}ru$, kill; im'sa, sleep; bana, come. The suffixes chi and nin are added if the subject is of the dual and plural, respectively. Thus, pū-chi, give ye two; pū-nin, give ye. If the suffix u, o, is added in the singular, the corresponding dual and plural are formed by changing ō, u to a and adding chu (i.e. perhaps chū) and num respectively; thus, dūng-ō, drink, dual dunga-chu, plural dunga-num.

Forms such as $p\vec{u}$, give; $n\vec{e}$, take, do not contain any suffix in the singular, and consequently add chi, nin, respectively.

Forms such as bāttu-ki bāna, take and come, bring; khāttu-ki khāra, take and go, take off, show that the first of two connected imperatives is changed to a kind of conjunctive participle by adding ki.

Causals are formed by adding mettu; thus, khang-mettu, cause to see, show.

The negative particle is a prefixed mā; thus, mā-āng, not-is, no. The negative imperative is formed by adding man. Another negative is formed by prefixing en and suffixing nin; thus, om-ko, white; eu-om-nin-ko, not white.

DŪNGMĀLI.

The Düngmāli Khambus live in the so-called Mājh, or Middle, Kirānt, i.e. in the nills between the Likha and Arun rivers.

AUTHORITIES-

Hoddson, B. H.,—Continuation of the Comparative Vocabulary of the several Dialects of the Kirántee Language. Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. xxvi, 1857, pp. 350 and ff. Reprinted in Miscellaneous Essays relating to Indian Subjects. Vol. i, London, 1880, pp. 194 and ff.

HUNTER, W. W.,—A Comparative Dictionary of the Languages of India and High Asia. London, 1868.

Düngmāli is most closely connected with Wāling, Löhöröng, and the Bontāwa dialects.

Nouns.—The prefix $\bar{u}m$ in $\bar{u}m$ -ma, mother, $(\bar{u}m$ -)lentok, day; $\bar{u}m$ -tang, head, etc., is by origin a demonstrative pronoun.

Gender is indicated by using different terms, or else by adding suffixes or words denoting the sex. Thus, $\bar{u}m-p\bar{a}$, father; $\bar{u}-m\bar{a}$ and $\bar{u}m-m\bar{a}$, mother: $m\bar{v}rchh\bar{a}$ and $p\bar{a}$, man; $\bar{u}mm\bar{u}$ and probably also $mechh\bar{a}$, woman: $p\bar{a}-d\bar{u}m$, husband; $m\bar{a}-d\bar{u}m$, wife: $v\bar{a}ngchh\bar{a}$, young man; $mechh\bar{a}bang$, young woman: $t\bar{u}p-p\bar{a}$, old man; $t\bar{a}p-m\bar{a}$, old woman: $\bar{u}mbh\bar{a}$ $k\bar{u}tim\bar{a}$, dog; $\bar{u}m-m\bar{a}$ $k\bar{u}tim\bar{a}$, bitch.

There are three numbers, the singular, the dual, and the plural. The dual is formed by suffixing chī or chīe and the plural by prefixing ma; thus, ī, bad, dual ī-chī-c, llural ma-y-ī. Compare Rūngchhēnbūng. The plural can also be formed by suffixing ne; thus, ummāng, raw, dual um-māng-chīe, plural ummāng-ne. Sometimes also ma is prefixed and chi suffixed; thus, dhī-go, great, dual dhī-chī, plural ma-dhik'-chi. There are apparently also other, slightly different, ways of forming the dual and the plural; thus. mūkchācha, black, dual makchāk'-pa-chī, plural makchak-chāk-chīye; om, white, dual om-chi, plural ma-onga-che; hārchhop'chho, red, dual hārchop'chho-ka-chī, plural hārchop'chho ma-kal'ka-chīe, etc.

The genitive is apparently expressed by putting the governed before the governing word, and inserting a pronominal prefix referring to the former before the latter; thus, pit'ūm'-chhā, cow its-young, calf. The suffix bi is added if the governed word is understood; thus, ang-bi, mine.

Other relations are indicated by means of postpositions. Such are $p\bar{\imath}$, $b\bar{\imath}$ and $y\bar{a}$, in ; bang and ibang \bar{a} , from ; \bar{a} , by ; bit'- $p\bar{\imath}$ and nang, with ; manchhi, without, etc.

Numerals.—The first six numerals are given in the table on p. 343. The suffix po in ak'-po, one, is a generic particle referring to human beings.

Pronouns.—The following are the personal pronouns:—

ang'-ka, ing'-ka, I.
ang, my.
ang-bi, mine.
anchākā-che, I and thou.
ang-che, āncha, my and thy.

hānā, thou. ām, thy.

ām-bi, thine.

hānā-che, you two.

am-cha, your two.

 $m\bar{u}$ -go, he, she, it.

(ūm), īgem, mogom, his, her, its.

igām-bi, mogom-bi, his, hers, its.

mu, maka-che, moko-chi, they two.

mugu-m, mukha-cha-cha, their two.

ang, ancha-bi, mine and am, kan-chā-bi. yours two. mukha-cha-bi, theirs two. thine. in'ka-chā-ga, I and he. ang, an-cha-ga, my and ang, an-cha-ga-bi, mine and his. ānkān, īnkān, I and you. hānā-nin, you. mukha. makhā, they. ān-ga, my and vour. ām-ga, your. тидит-да, makhā-um-cha. their. ān-bi, mine and yours. kān-bi, yours. makha-bi, theirs. inkan-ga, I and they. ang-ga, my and their. ang-ga-bi, mine and theirs.

I am far from being certain that all the forms in the above table are correct.

I-go, this; $mg\bar{u}$ -o, that, are given as demonstrative pronouns. $Mg\bar{u}$ -o is probably a misprint for $m\bar{u}go$.

Interrogative pronouns are $s\bar{a}g$ and khi-go, who? ti-go, what? tem, how much? The indefinite particle chhang, also, is added to interrogative bases in order to form indefinite pronouns; thus, $s\bar{a}g$ -chhang, anybody; ti-chhang, anything.

Verbs.—We are very unsatisfactorily informed about the use of pronominal suffixes for indicating the person and number of the subject and object, and about the formation of tenses.

A dual and a plural subject of an imperative is indicated by adding chie, num'-ye, respectively. The preceding sound can be modified in different ways. Thus, mū-ye, do; mū-chie, do ye two; mū-num'-ye, do ye: lū-ye, lū-chie, lū-num'-ye, tell: nōr-e, nor-chie, nor-num'-ye, strike: sede, sede-chie, ser-num'-ye, kill: thende, then'de-chie, then'de-num'-ye, lift up: tāg'we, tagwe-chie, tag-num'-ye, bring: yēne, yen'-che, yena-num'ye, hear: tūbe, tūba-che, tūba-num'-ye, make: yūng'se, yung'si-chie, yung'-su-num'ye, put down, etc.

The suffix ang is added to denote an object of the first person singular in iy-ang-ye, give me.

The suffix of the imperative is e or ye; see the examples just given.

The negative particle is perhaps a prefixed $m\bar{a}$; thus, $m\bar{a}n$, is not, no. 'No' is also translated $j\bar{e}$, and soh'. There is said to be a negative suffix $-\bar{i}$ -, and the negative imperative is formed by adding man'to.

RÖDÖNG OR CHĀMLING.

Our information about the Bōdōng or Chāming tribe of the Khambus is very scanty. They are found between the Likhu and Arun rivers

AUTHOBITY-

Hodgson, B. H..—Comparative Vocabulary of the several Languages (Dialects) of the celebrated people called Kirántis, now occupying the Eastern-most province of the kingdom of Népal, or the basin of the river Arun, which province is name? after them, Kiránt. Journal of the Asiatio Society of Vol. III, PART I.

Bengal, Vol. xxvi, 1857, pp. 333 and ff. Reprinted in Miscellaneous Essays relating to Indian Subjects. Vol. i, London, 1880, pp. 176 and ff.

Nouns.—The prefix \bar{u} , $\bar{u}m$, which occurs in forms such as \bar{u} - $ng\bar{a}l\bar{u}ng$, face; $\bar{u}m$ - $p\bar{a}$, father; \bar{u} - $m\bar{a}$, mother, etc., is by origin a pronominal prefix of the third person.

Gender is distinguished by using different words or by adding qualifying words; thus, $\bar{u}m$ - $p\bar{a}$, father; \bar{u} - $m\bar{a}$, mother: $sor\tilde{o}$ - $chh\bar{a}$, man; $m\bar{a}r$ - $chh\bar{a}$, woman: $sor\tilde{o}$ - $chh\bar{a}$ $chh\bar{a}$, son; $m\bar{a}r$ - $chh\bar{a}$ $chh\bar{a}$, daughter: $p\bar{a}chh\bar{a}$, old man; $m\bar{a}chh\bar{a}$, old woman: $khl\bar{i}$ - $p\bar{a}$, dog; $khl\bar{i}$ - $m\bar{a}$, bitch: $w\bar{a}sa\ \bar{o}p\bar{a}$, male bird; $w\bar{a}sa\ \bar{o}m\bar{a}$, female bird: $\bar{u}mp\bar{a}\ hatti$, male elephant; $\bar{u}mm\bar{a}\ hatti$, female elephant: $p\bar{i}\ \bar{u}mp\bar{a}$, bull; $p\bar{i}\ \bar{u}mm\bar{a}$, cow.

We have no information about the use of suffixes denoting number. It will be seen in what follows that such suffixes are used with pronouns, and there is no reason for supposing that the same is not the case with nouns.

The various cases are formed by adding suffixes. Thus we find $w\bar{a}$ for the agent; $d\bar{a}$ for the locative; $d\bar{a}$ -no and $d\bar{a}$ - $k\bar{a}$, for the ablative, and so on. Other locative suffixes are probably lo, la and pa; thus, khong-lo, then; dha-lo and dha-la, above; wos-pa, now; tes-pa, then, etc.

The suffix of the genitive is said to be mi or mo. The genitive suffix can be dropped, and the governed word can be indicated by means of a pronominal prefix before the governed one; thus, $p\bar{\imath}$ $\bar{\imath}m$ -chh $\bar{\imath}$, cow its-young, a calf.

Other relations are indicated by means of postpositions. Such are *cho-dā*, top-in, on; *chak-dā*, side-in, close to; $p\bar{\imath}$ - $d\bar{a}$, together with; ma-dang, without, and so on.

Adjectives often end in ko; thus, $k\bar{u}re-ko$, hot; $\bar{\imath}se$ and $\bar{\imath}se-ko$, bad. This ko is probably a demonstrative pronoun which adds definiteness, so that $\bar{\imath}se-ko$ should properly be translated 'the bad one.'

The first numerals will be found in the table on p. 343. The meaning of the final ra cannot be ascertained.

Pronouns.—The following are the personal pronouns:—

 kāngā, kā, ingkā, I.
 khānā, thou.
 khū, he, she, it.

 ā, ang, my.
 khā, thy.
 ū, ō, ūm, ung, his, her, its.

 ang-mo, mine.
 kkā-mo, thine.
 khū-mo, his, hers, its.

 ka-ī, kai, we.
 kha-ī-ni, khā-nā-i, you.
 khū-chu, khū-ī, they.

 i-mo, āi-mo, our.
 kha-ī-mo, your.
 khū-ī-mo, their.

There are no certain traces of a separate dual in the materials. It is possible that **khū-chu**, they, is a dual, but the question must be left undecided.

Kai, we, is said to be used in all cases, whether the person addressed is included or not. It corresponds to kei in the dialect of Khambu described above on pp. 317 and ff. and to kai in Nācherēng, goi in Bāhing and Thūlung, and so on. The final i is probably a plural suffix; compare khū-ī, they. The suffix chu in khū-chu, they, is another plural suffix, or else it is a dual termination. The final ni in kha-ī-ni, you, is perhaps also a plural suffix; compare Limbu khe-nī, Rāi ān-ni, you, and so on. The pronoun khānā, thou, is identical with kānā and ānā in other Khambu dialects.

Other pronouns are nyao, this; hyāo-ko and hyā-ko, this one; tyā, that, tyā-ko, that one; sō, which? sa, who? dā-ko, what? dē-ma, why? sō-ī, anybody; i-sā-ma, anybody; dē-ī, dyes, and syū, anything, and so on.

Verbs.—We have no information about the use of pronominal suffixes to distinguish the person of the subject. The suffix ng is used to denote an object of the first person in $\bar{\imath}do-ng$, give me; compare $\bar{\imath}du$, give.

The usual suffix of the imperative is \bar{o} or u; thus, $ch\bar{o}$, eat; $d\bar{u}ngu$, drink. Other imperatives end in \bar{a} ; thus, $riy\bar{a}$, laugh; $kh\bar{a}p\bar{a}$, weep; $b\bar{a}n\bar{a}$, come; $u\bar{o}n\bar{a}$, run. The final na in im'-sa-na, sleep, is perhaps a suffix of the second person plural, while im'-sa, sleep, seems to be the ordinary singular; compare Rüngchhenbüng im'-sa, sleep thou; imsa-chi, sleep ye two; imsa-nin, sleep ye.

The negative particle is said to be a suffixed or infixed \bar{i} . It is probably contained in $a-\bar{i}-na$, no. A prefix ma apparently occurs in ma-dang, without, lit. probably 'not-being.' The negative with imperatives is mi, mai, or $d\bar{a}$.

NACHHERENG.

The Nachhereng Khambus are found in what Hodgeon calls Mäjh Kirant or Middle Kirant, i.e. the country between the Likhu and Arun rivers.

AUTHORITIES-

Hodson, B. H.,—Comparative Yocabulary of the several Languages (Dialects) of the celebrated people called Kirântis, now compying the Eastern-most province of the Kingdom of Népál, or the basin of the river Árun, which province is named after them, Kirânt. Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. xxvi, 1857, pp. 333 and ff. Rewinted in Miscellaneous Essays relating to Indian Subjects. Vol. i, London, 1880, pp. 176 and ff.

HUETER, W. W.,- A Comparative Dictionary of the Languages of India and High Asia. London, 1868.

Nouns.—The natural gender is distinguished in the usual way by means of separate terms or by adding qualifying words. Thus, wāch'chhā, man; mīm-chhā, woman: ūmtopo, husband; yūk'ū, wife: solo, young man; solo-me, young woman: ū-pa, and ūmps, father; ū-ma and ūm-ms, mother: passou, old man; massou, young woman: wā-pā, cock; wā-mā, hen: ū-pā chhōwa, a male bird; ū-ma chhōwa, a female bird: ūm'-pa mēisā, a he-buffalo; ūm'-ma mēisā, a she-buffalo: wāch'chhā chhā, a son: mīm'chhā chhā, a daughter, and so on.

We have no information about the formation of the dual and plural.

The genitive is formed by prefixing the governed to the governing word, the former being often at the same time repeated by means of a demonstrative pronoun prefixed to the latter; thus, tāa sām, head's hair, the hair of the head; pī-mi ām-chhā, cow its young, calf.

Other relations are indicated by adding postpositions, such as ā, by; ām, from; pi, in; ngāng and māng, with; māngdi, without.

The first five numerals are given in the table on p. 343. They are apparently most closely connected with the forms occurring in Sangpang.

Pronouns.—The following are the personal pronouns:—

ka-i, I and you. ka-i-ka, I and they.	ānā-i, ān-ni-mo, you.	yāk-mo-wā, yāko-i, maka-i, they.
100-ki, our. 100-ki-mi, ours	am-ni-mo-wā, your.	yāk-mo-mi, their.

Kāngā, kā, I, is identical with the forms used in Rōdōng, Sāngpāng, Lōhōrōng, etc We have no information as to whether the dialect possesses separate dual forms.

The plural suffix i in ka-i, we; ānā-i, you, etc., also occurs in Rōdōng, Sāngpāng, Kūlung, Bāhing, etc.

Another plural suffix is ni in $\bar{a}n-ni-mo$, you. Mo is perhaps also a plural suffix; compare $y\bar{a}k-movo\bar{a}$, they.

Demonstrative pronouns are unu, an-nga, this; khankou and yak-nga, that.

Interrogative pronouns are $\bar{a}s$, who? $\bar{a}s-n\bar{a}-l\bar{e}$, which? $\bar{u}-l\bar{e}$, what? The final $l\bar{e}$ in the two latter forms is probably the verb substantive, compare $l\bar{e}$, yes, literally 'it is.' An interrogative base $d\bar{e}$ occurs in $d\bar{e}l$, how much? By adding sa to the interrogative bases indefinite pronouns are formed; thus, $\bar{a}sa$, anybody; $\bar{u}-sa$, anything.

Verbs.—We have no information about the use of pronominal suffixes in order to indicate the person and number of the subject. \mathcal{A} in $p\bar{\imath}$ -a-wa, give me, is probably a pronominal suffix of the first person denoting the object. The imperative of the base $p\bar{\imath}$, to give, with an object of the third person is $p\bar{\imath}$ -y-o.

Forms such as $l\bar{e}$ and $h\bar{o}$, yes, literally 'it is,' seem to show that the base alone is used as a present. We have no other information about the formation of the various tenses.

The imperative ends in u or o, or else in a; thus, $ch\bar{u}$ -u, eat; $d\bar{u}ng$ -o, drink; yop'su, strike; $s\bar{t}tu$, kill; $\bar{t}msa$, sleep; $rh\bar{e}sa$, laugh; $kh\bar{a}pa$, weep; $n\bar{t}na$, speak; $t\bar{a}wa$, come; $kh\bar{a}ta$, go. We cannot decide if the consonant preceding the a forms part of the suffix or belongs to the base.

The negative particle is a prefixed $m\bar{a}$, thus, $m\bar{a}$ - \bar{a} , not-is, no. No is used instead if the verb is in the imperative. Hodgson mentions a negative infix is-a, but he does not give any instance of its use.

KULUNG.

The home of the Kulung sept of the Khambus is the so-called Majh, or Middle, Kirant, i.e. the hills between the Likhu and Arun rivers.

AUTHORITY-

Hodeson, B. H.,—Comparative Vocabulary of the several Languages (Dialects) of the celebrated people called Kirántis, now occupying the Eastern-most province of the kingdom of Népál, or the basin of the river Arun, which province is named after them, Kiránt. Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. xxvi, 1857, pp. 333 and ff. Reprinted in Miscellaneous Essays relating to Indian Subjects. Vol. i, London, 1880, pp. 176 and ff.

The Kulung dialect is most closely connected with Nachhereng. It is essentially identical with the dialect described above on pp. 317 and ff.

Nouns.—The prefix $\bar{u}m$ in words such as $\bar{u}m$ - $d\bar{i}$, egg; $\bar{u}m$ - $p\bar{i}tta$, horn; $\bar{u}m$ - $t\bar{u}ppo$, husband; $\bar{u}m$ - $p\bar{a}$, father, etc., is probably a demonstrative pronoun and connected with va, his, her, its.

Gender is distinguished by using different terms or else by adding words meaning 'male,' 'female,' respectively. Thus, ūm'-pā, father; ūm-mā, mother: wāchchhā, man; mim'chhā, woman: tūppo, husband; yuh'u, wife: solo, young man; solo-me, young woman: wachchhā-chhā, son; mim'chhā-chhā, daughter: wā-pā, cock; wā-mā, hen: wāp-chhōwa, a male bird; wām-chhōwa, a female bird: mēsi mī-pa and ūm'pā mēsi, a he-buffalo; mēsi

mī-mā and ūm'mā mēsi, a she-buffalo. The initial ū of ūm'pā, ūm'-mā, is dropped when those words are added to words ending in a vowel; thus, pī-m'pā, bull; pī-i-m'-mā, cow.

There are no instances in the materials of a dual or a plural.

The genitive is apparently formed by prefixing the governed to the governing word without any suffix; thus, $w\bar{a}$ - $d\bar{i}$, bird's egg. In pi- $m'chh\bar{a}$, cow's young, calf, an m' has apparently been inserted. It is probably the possessive pronoun of the third person.

Other relations are indicated by means of postpositions. Such are nga, \bar{a} and $pik\bar{a}$, from; \bar{a} , by; $g\bar{a}mpi$, lo, with; $m\bar{a}ndi$, without; $p\bar{a}$, pi, $g\bar{o}$ - $p\bar{a}$, pi- $t\bar{u}$, and them- $t\bar{u}$, in, and so on.

The first ten numerals are given in the table on p. 343. They most closely correspond to the forms in use in Nachhereng, Löhöröng, etc

Pronouns.—The following are the personal pronouns:—

kongā, I.	ānā, thou.	nāko, mūko, netako, he, she, it wa, his, her, its.	t.
kekā-ā, ko-i, koni, we.	ām-mi, thine. āni, ānā-i, you.	nakwa-mi, his, hers, its. nāko-ni, they.	
wokhi-mi, our.	ām-ni-mi, your.	kwac'i-mi, na-kwa-chi-mi their.	i,

The forms kwa-chi-mi and na-kwa-chi-mi, their, are perhaps dual forms Ko-i and ko-ni, we, are perhaps the inclusive, and kekā-ā, the exclusive form; compare Nāchherēng kai, I and you; kai-ka, I and they. Hodgson, however, registers all the three forms as inclusive.

Demonstrative pronouns are ingkong, inko-pi, this; mungkong, nakong and nakopi, that.

Interrogative pronouns are $\bar{a}s\bar{e}$, who? $\bar{a}s$ and $\bar{a}sdatukwa$, which? $\bar{u}so$ and $\bar{u}i$, what? $d\bar{a}i$ and $d\bar{a}t\bar{u}kwa$, why? $S\bar{o}$, and, also, is used as an indefinite particle; thus, $\bar{a}s$ and $\bar{a}-s\bar{o}$, anybody; $\bar{u}-s\bar{o}$, anything.

Verbs.—We have no information about the use of pronominal suffixes for indicating the person and number of the subject and the object, or about the formation of tenses.

The final \bar{a} in $pi-y-\bar{a}$, give me, is perhaps a pronominal suffix indicating an object of the first person.

 $Y\bar{c}$, it is, yes, is probably the present tense of a verb substantive $y\bar{c}$, and apparently shows that the mere base can be used as a present.

The mere base can also be used as an imperative; thus, nē, take. In most cases, however, an u, o, or an a is added; thus, keru, strike; dungngu, drink; cho, eat; pō-a, tell; nēna, speak; bāna, come; khāpa, weep; thōrēpa, stand; khāta, go; im'sa, sleep; gēsa, laugh; būlsa, run, and so on.

The negative particle is a prefixed $m\bar{a}$ or man; thus, $man'n\bar{o}i$, good. Hodgson also mentions a negative infix i, but does not give any example. The negative with imperatives is ns.

THULUNG.

The habitat of the Thulung sept of the Khambus is in the hills between the Likhu and Arun rivers, in the so-called Majh, or Middle, Kirant.

AUTHORITIES-

Hodgson, B. H.,—Comparative Vocabulary of the several Languages (Dialects) of the celebrated people called Kirántis, now occupying the Eastern-most province of the kingdom of Népál, or the basin of the river Árun, which province is named after them, Kiránt. Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. xxvi, 1857, pp. 333 and ff. Reprinted in Miscellaneous Essays relating to Indian Subjects. Vol. i, London, 1880, pp. 176 and ff.

HUNTER, W. W.,—A Comparative Dictionary of the Languages of India and High Asia. London, 1868. Thülung is most closely related with Külung on one side, and Chourasya, Khāling, and Dūmi on the other.

Nouns.—The prefix \bar{u} in \bar{u} - $p\bar{a}p$, father; \bar{u} - $m\bar{a}m$, mother, etc., is identical with \bar{u} , his, her, its.

Gender is distinguished by using different words or by means of qualifying additions; thus, $p\bar{a}p$ and \bar{u} - $p\bar{a}p$, father; $m\bar{a}m$ and \bar{u} - $m\bar{a}m$, mother: $w\bar{a}schwe$, man; $wochy\bar{u}$, woman: $w\bar{a}schwe$ - $chw\bar{e}$, son; mis'che- $chw\bar{e}$ - $chw\bar{e}$ -and $m\bar{a}schwe$ - $chw\bar{e}$, daughter: $gr\bar{o}k'pn$ - $p\bar{o}$, cock; \bar{u} - $m\bar{a}m$ -pwa- $p\bar{o}$ and \bar{u} - $m\bar{a}m$ - $p\bar{o}$, hen: \bar{u} - $p\bar{a}p$ $m\bar{e}si$, a he-buffalo; \bar{u} - $m\bar{a}m$ $m\bar{e}si$ a she-buffalo: \bar{u} -pa bo, a boar; \bar{u} - $m\bar{a}m$ $bw\bar{a}$, a sow: $ng\bar{a}$ - \bar{u} , an old man; $ng\bar{a}$ -mi, an old woman, and so on.

There are no instances in the materials of a dual or a plural of nouns.

The genitive is sometimes expressed by simply putting the governed before the governing noun; thus, $bh\bar{e}d\bar{a}$ $chw\bar{e}$, sheep's young, lamb. A genitive suffix $k\bar{a}$ -m can be added and the governed word is, at the same time, commonly repeated before the governing one by means of a pronominal prefix; thus, gai- $k\bar{a}$ -m \bar{u} - $chw\bar{e}$, cow-of its-young, calf. The suffix $k\bar{a}$ -m is a compound consisting of the suffix $k\bar{a}$, which also occurs in the meaning by, by means of, and which must have the meaning in, with, and a second suffix m, which is originally a demonstrative pronoun or verb substantive, and which is used to form adjectives and nouns of agency in the same way as Bāhing mi. The literal meaning of gai- $k\bar{a}$ -m is accordingly cow-with-being.

Other relations are indicated by means of postpositions. Such are $k\bar{a}$, by; $d\bar{a}$ -ng and $k\bar{a}$ -ng, from; $n\bar{a}$, $d\bar{a}$, $d\bar{u}$, in; nung, with; mānthi, without, and so on. A postposition ka, in, with, must be inferred from $k\bar{a}$ -ng, from.

Numerals.—The first numerals are given in the table on p. 343. The forms ending in le are used if the qualified word denotes an animal, those ending in ong, chi, etc., when human beings are counted. Higher numbers are counted in twenties.

Pronouns.—The following are the personal pronouns:—

go, I. ā, my. ā-mā, mine.

goi, I and you.
goks, I and they.
iki-mā, mine and yours.
iki-mā, mine and theirs.

gāna, thou. š, thy. ye-mā, thine.

*gā-n*i, you.

i-ni-mā, yours.

hāna, he, she, it.
ū, his, her, its.
ō-kām, hanom-kām, his, hers, its.
hanom-mim, hanom-nu, they.

hanom-mi-kām, their.

Hodgson gives goi as the exclusive and goku as the inclusive form. I have distinguished between them after the analogy of Bähing goi and goku. I have also supposed $\tilde{\imath}ki(-m\tilde{a})$ and $\tilde{a}ki(-m\tilde{a})$, our, to correspond to Bähing $\tilde{\imath}ke$, wake, our, respectively.

There are certainly also dual forms in addition to the above, for Hodgson gives ωchi , these two, as the dual of $\omega \bar{c}$, this.

Demonstrative pronouns are $w\bar{o}$ and $w\bar{o}r\bar{a}m$, this; wo-chi, these two; wo-mim, these; $my\bar{o}$, $my\bar{o}r\bar{a}m$, and $han\bar{u}m$, that.

Interrogative pronouns are syū and ūhēm, who: kūm, what: Indefinite pronouns are formed by adding bua, also, to the interrogative bases; thus, syu-bua, anyone; hambua, anything.

Verbs.—We have no information about the use of pronominal suffixes for indicating the person and number of the subject and object, or about the formation of the various tenses. The suffix $\bar{a}ng$ in $gw\bar{a}$ - $\bar{a}ng$, give me, denotes that the object is of the first person singular.

 $B\bar{u}$, yes, is probably the base of a word meaning 'to be,' used as a present. Mi-si, yes, literally 'it-is,' perhaps contains a suffix si.

The base alone can be used as an imperative; thus, $p\bar{e}$, eat; $n\bar{e}$, take. Other imperatives end in a; thus, $b\bar{a}ka$, wake; $b\bar{\imath}ka$, come; $gw\bar{\imath}-ka$, give; $d\bar{\imath}nga$, drink; $l\bar{\imath}ba$, be silent; $w\bar{\imath}nda$, run; $j\bar{e}sa$, speak; dak'sa, go, and so on.

The negative particle is a prefixed $m\tilde{e}$, $m\tilde{i}$ or $m\tilde{a}$; thus, $m\tilde{e}e$, not-is, no; $m\tilde{i}$ -ny $\tilde{u}p\tilde{a}$, not good, bad; $m\tilde{a}nthi$, without. Another negative prefix is $d\tilde{v}kh\tilde{o}n$, which corresponds to Khāling dokhai; thus, $d\tilde{v}kh\tilde{o}n$ $dhy\tilde{u}pa$, not long, short; $d\tilde{v}kh\tilde{o}n$ $y\tilde{e}pa$, not tall, short.

CHOURASYA.

The Chourasya Khambus live in what Hodgson calls Pallo, or Further Kirant, i.e. the hills from the Arun to the Mechi and the Singilela Range.

AUTHORITY-

Hodgson, B. H.,—Comparative Vocabulary of the several Languages (Dialects) of the celebrated people called Kirántis, now occupying the Eastern-most province of the kingdom of Népál, or the basis of the river Arun, which province is named after them Kirint. Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. xxvi, 1857, pp. 333 and ff. Reprinted in Miscellaneous Essays relating to Indian Subjects. Vol. i, London, 1880, pp. 176 and ff.

Our information about the Chournéya dialect is even more unsatisfactory than is the case with other forms of Khambu. It seems to occupy a somewhat independent position, and often differs from connected forms of speech in grammar and vocabulary. Dumi and Khaling are apparently most closely connected.

B and m, d and n, respectively, are apparently interchangeable; thus, $s\bar{a}la-me$, young woman; $t\bar{a}-be$, daughter; bisi, Dūmi miksi, eye; $d\bar{v}b\bar{u}$, Kūlung $n\bar{o}bo$, nose; di, Kūlung ning, name; $dw\bar{a}m$, Dūmi $n\bar{a}m$, sun, etc. It will be seen that d in the last instances corresponds to n in connected forms of speech.

Nouns.—Gender is distinguished in the usual way, by means of different words or of qualifying additions. Thus, \bar{a} -po, father; \bar{a} -mo, mother: $ng\bar{e}$ -w \bar{a} , old man; $ng\bar{e}$ -b \bar{e} , cld woman: $t\bar{a}$ -wa, son; $t\bar{a}$ -le, daughter: \bar{o} cho and $w\bar{o}$ cho, man, husband; $b\bar{s}$ cho, wife:

ācho-bēbā, boy; bīcho-bēbā, girl: sālācho, young man; sāla-me, young woman: āpo chāli and chāli ngāpo, dog; chāli nīma and ābomo chāli, bitch: āpo bīya, bull; āmo bīya, cow.

There are no instances of a dual or a plural in the materials available.

The genitive is apparently formed by simply putting the governed before the governing word without any suffix; thus, $b\bar{a}$ $b\bar{a}ng'gya$, bird's egg; $b\bar{\imath}ya$ $n\bar{u}nu$, cow's young, calf.

Other relations are indicated by means of postpositions, such as bi-lo, with; kho, by; lo, in; lo-ngo, from; sokho, without, and so on.

The first four numerals are given in the table on p. 343. They are apparently more closely related to the numerals in Thūlung than to those in other Khambu dialects.

Pronouns.—The following are the personal pronouns:—

ūnggū, I.ngo-me, ūnu, thou.time, yo-me, ya-me, he, she, it.ā, my.i-leme, thine.nge-me-leme, his, hers, its.ūnggū-ticha, we.ngo-me-ticha, you.to-me-ticha, they.iki-leme, our.mūyem-leme, your.ngo-no-ma-ticha-leme, their.

The above table probably contains some mistakes. Corresponding forms are Dūmi and Khāling ūng, I; Khāling ā, my; ī, thy; Dūmi iki, our; ānu, thou; tem and tami, this, etc.

Interrogative pronouns are $\bar{a}ch\bar{u}$, who? which? $th\bar{a}m\bar{e}$, which? $\bar{a}m\bar{a}$, what? Indefinite pronouns are formed by adding $y\bar{e}$, also, to interrogatives; thus, $\bar{a}ch\bar{u}-y\bar{e}$, anybody; $\bar{a}m\bar{a}-y\bar{e}$, anything.

Verbs.—We have no information about the use of pronominal suffixes to denote the person and number of the subject and object, or of the formation of tenses.

There is apparently a verb substantive ti; thus, $t\bar{\imath}$ -me, it is, yes. The final me of this form is probably a copula, which is used as an assertive particle, and is probably connected with the final me in many pronouns.

Forms ending in \bar{a} , $t\bar{a}$, $st\bar{a}$, $st\bar{a}$, etc., are given as imperatives; thus, $lih\bar{a}$, be silent; $gak\bar{a}$, give; $h\bar{a}lt\bar{a}$, walk; $phitt\bar{a}$, bring; $b\bar{a}kst\bar{a}$, speak; $lev\bar{a}st\bar{a}$, go; $j\bar{a}-k\bar{a}t\bar{a}$, eat; $pi-k\bar{a}t\bar{a}$, come, etc. The base alone is used as an imperative in $n\bar{e}$, take.

The negative particle is a prefixed \bar{a} ; thus $\bar{a}tti$, it is not, no; $\bar{a}d\bar{u}ch\bar{o}$, not-good, bad. Before imperatives $n\bar{o}$ can be used instead.

KHĀLING.

The Khāling Khambus are found in the so-called Mājh, or Middle, Kirānt, i.e. the hills between the Likhu and Arun rivers.

AUTHORITIES-

Hodgson, B. H.,—Continuation of the Comparative Vocabulary of the several Dialects of the Kirántee Language. Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. xxvi, 1857, pp. 350 and ff. Reprinted in Miscellaneous Essays relating to Indian Subjects. Vol. i, London, 1880, pp. 194 and ff. Hunter, W. W.—A Comparative Dictionary of the Languages of India and High Asia. London, 1868.

Khāling is most closely related to Dūmi and the so-called Rāi.

Nouns.—The demonstrative base \vec{u} , that, its, is used as a prefix in words such as \vec{u} -chy \vec{e} , child; \vec{u} -dhong, head; \vec{u} -nyol, day; \vec{u} -pāp, father, etc.

Gender is distinguished by using different terms, or else by adding suffixes and words denoting the sex; thus, \bar{u} - $p\bar{a}p$, father; \bar{u} - $m\bar{a}m$, mother: $\bar{a}dumbu$, huband; \bar{u} -may, wife: $las'b\bar{a}$, man; $mesp\bar{a}$, woman: $p\bar{a}chh\bar{a}$, old man; $m\bar{a}chh\bar{a}$, old woman: $s\bar{a}l\bar{a}$ -chye, young man; $s\bar{a}l\bar{a}$ -me, young woman: koklap, cock; $\bar{u}ph\bar{a}m$, hen: $\bar{u}p\bar{a}p$ $khl\bar{e}b$, dog; $\bar{u}m\bar{a}m$ $khl\bar{e}b$, bitch: $t\bar{a}r\bar{a}$ - \bar{q} - $chy\bar{e}$, son; $melsim\bar{a}$ - $chy\bar{e}$, daughter: chwe-chwe and $las'b\bar{a}$ chwe, boy; $m\bar{e}lsem$ - $chy\bar{e}$, girl, etc.

There are three numbers, the singular, the dual, and the plural, but we do not know how the dual and the plural are formed.

The genitive is formed by adding po as in Dūmi or kām as in Thūlung and repeating the governed word by means of a pronominal prefix before the governing one; thus, grot-po ū-chyēsā, goat-of its-young, kid; gai-kām ũ-chyēsā, cow-of its-young, calf.

Other relations are indicated by adding postpositions. Such are $b\bar{\imath}$, in; $bi-k\bar{a}$, from; \bar{a} , by; $p\bar{o}-bi$ and $k\bar{o}lo$, with; $t\bar{\imath}$, on, upon; $m\bar{a}ngtk\bar{a}$, without, and so on.

Numerals.—The first numerals are given in the table on p. 343. It will be seen that higher numbers are counted in twenties.

Pronouns. - The following are the personal pronouns: -

ūng, I.	in, thou.	tām, mām, yākām, he, she, it.
\bar{a} , my.	\bar{z} , thy.	ü, yākām, his, her, its.
\bar{a} - po , mine.	īn-110, thine.	yākām-po, his, hers, its.
i-chi, in-chi, I and thou.	ye-chi, an-chi, you two.	ōm-sa, they two.
is, my and thy.	yës, your two.	ūnsū, ū, amsa, yākām-sū, their
ōchā, ãchā, I and he.		two.
ös, my and his.		
šk, I and you.	yēn, you.	am-ham, they.
ik, my and your.	yēn, your,	yākām, ū, their.
$\bar{o}k$, I and they.		
ōk, my and their.		

It will be seen that the dual and the plural are frequently left unmarked in the third person. Forms such as $\bar{o}ch\bar{u}$ -po, mine and his; $\bar{i}k$ -po, mine and yours, etc., are of course used in addition to those just registered.

Demonstrative pronouns are tom-ngā, this; mām-ngā, that.

Interrogative and indefinite pronouns are $kh\bar{a}m$, who? mang-ga, what? hebe, how much? $kh\bar{a}-bi$, where? $m\bar{a}-bi$, why? $s\bar{u}i-y\bar{o}$, anybody; $m\bar{a}ng-y\bar{o}$, anything.

Verbs.—We are very unsatisfactorily informed about the use of pronominal suffixes to indicate the person and number of the subject and object, and about the formation of tenses.

A dual subject with an imperative is indicated by adding chi or sometimes $\bar{\imath}$ or by inserting it before the imperative suffix e. The corresponding plural suffix is $n\bar{\imath}$ -y-e, na-y-e, or s-na-y-e. Thus, s-ede, kill; s-chi, kill ye two; s-e-s-na-y-e, kill ye; p-id-e, p-i-chi-e, p-i-s-naye, bring; k-hatte, k-hatte-chi-e, k-ho-s-naye, take away; n-gande, n-gande-chi-e, n-gandi-n-ye, p-ut down; m-u-ye, m-i-ye, m-i-ni-ye, p-do, etc.

The suffix ngā is added in order to denote an object of the first person singular in bi-ngā-ye, give me.

It has already been remarked that the imperative ends in e or ye. That is not, however, always the case, and we also find imperatives such as leba, be silent; am'si, sleep, etc.

The negative particles are a prefixed mā and a prefixed dokhāi (compare. Thūlung dokhôn); thus, ma-a, not is, no; mā-nyūpa, not good, bad; dokhāi-song'-pa, not long, short. The negative imperative is formed by adding mo.

DŪMI.

The Dumi Khambus are found in the so-called Majh, or Middle, Kirant, i.e. the hills between the Likhu and Arun rivers.

AUTHORITY-

HODGSON, B. H., - Continuation of the Comparative Vocabulary of the several Dialects of the Kirántes Language. Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. xxvi, 1857, pp. 350 and ff. Reprinted in Miscellaneous Essays relating to Indian Subjects. Vol. i, London, 1880, pp. 194 and ff.

Dumi is most closely connected with Khāling and with the dialect described below under the head of Rai.

Nouns.—The prefix \bar{u} in words such as \bar{u} - $p\bar{u}$, father; \bar{u} - $my\bar{a}m$, mother; $\bar{u}tt\bar{i}$, egg, etc., is by origin a demonstrative pronoun.

Gender is indicated by using different terms or else by adding suffixes and words indicating the sex. Thus, \bar{u} - $p\bar{u}$, \bar{u} - $py\bar{a}p$ and i- $py\bar{a}p$, father; \bar{u} - $my\bar{a}m$, mother: $las^*b\bar{e}$, man; mēsbē, woman: ādūmbo, husband; ū-mei, wife: pāchhā, old man; māchhā, old woman: sālā-chyo, young man; sālā-me, young woman: ū-pū, or ū-pyāp, khlēb, dog; ū-mū, or ū-myām, khlēb, bitch: gyai-pō-ū-chyo ū-pyāp, male calf; gyai-pō-ū-chyo ū-myām, female calf: lasbē-chyo, son; mēsbē-chyo, daughter, and so on.

There are three numbers, the singular, the dual, and the plural. We do not know how the dual and the plural are expressed.

The suffix of the genitive is $p\bar{o}$, and the governed word is repeated by means of a pronominal prefix before the governing one; thus, bī-pō ū-chū, cow-of its-young, calf.

Other relations are indicated by means of postpositions. Such are bi, $y\bar{o}$, in; $b\bar{i}$, ke, with; bi-kā, from; \bar{a} , $ng\bar{a}$, by, etc.

Numerals.—The first numerals are given in the table on p. 343. They are closely related to the forms in the so-called Rai.

Pronouns.—The following are the personal pronouns:—

ing, ang-ngu, I. ō. my. ō-vo, mine. šchi, I and thou, my and thy. ochu, l and he. ochu, achi, my and his. iki, inki, I and you, my and anni, you. your. onge, ang-ka, I and they.

ang-ka, ok, my and their.

in, anu, thou. \bar{a} , thy. appo, thine. ye-chi, you two. ye-chi, ān-chi, your two.

āmi, your.

nam, yākām, momi, he, she, it. u, mom, his, her, its. mom-po, his, hers, its. yākām-sū, ummi, they two. yākām-sū, um-ni, mom-ni, their

yā kām-hām, mam-hām. they, their.

Demonstrative pronouns are tami, tem, and tem-ngā, this; momi, yākām, and yākām-ngā, that.

Interrogative and indefinite pronouns are syū and syū-go, who? māng and mimngā, what? mā-pū-ne, why? syū-yō, anybody; māng-yō, anything, and so on.

Verbs.—The use of pronominal suffixes and prefixes in order to indicate the person and number of the subject and the object, and the formation of the tenses are probably the same as in the so-called Rāi. A suffix $ng\bar{a}$ is used in order to indicate an object of the first person singular in $b\bar{i}-ng\bar{a}$, give me.

The base alone, and with suffixes such as e and a, is used as an imperative; thus, jē, speak; pū, come; tūng-e, drink; sed-e, kill; rīpha, stand up, etc.

The negative particle is a prefixed ma, mo, or $m\bar{u}$; thus, mo- \bar{o} , not-is, no; $m\bar{u}$ -bhang'-pa, not-handsome, ugly. The negative imperative is formed by adding $m\bar{u}$.

RĀI.

The country between the Dud Kosi and Tambor rivers in Nepal is inhabited by the tribes known as Jimdārs and Yākhās. They claim that their country alone is properly called Kirānt dēś. They call themselves Rāis.

The Jimdars have often been considered to be identical with the Khambus. According to information collected for the purposes of the last Census of 1901, however, the two terms are quite distinct. 'The Khambus of Darjeeling often assume the title of Rai and claim to be the same as Jimdars, but their pretensions are not admitted in Nepal.' In this place, where we are only concerned with language, the difference between Jimdar and Khambu is of no importance.

Hodgson does not use the designation Jimdar, but includes the tribes in question in the Kiranti group. The name 'Jimdar' is said to be a corruption of the Hindostani 'Zamīndar' used in the sense of 'crofter.' 'Rāi' is the well-known Indian honorific title.

No information has been forthcoming about the number of Jimdars in and outside Nepal. At the various Censuses and during the preparatory operations of this Survey they have been confounded with the Khambus.

A version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son and a list of Standard Words and Phrases in a dialect called Rāi have been forwarded from the Nepal Darbar. The Parable is written in a dialect which corresponds to what Hodgson called Dūmi. The same is the case with the bulk of the list. Some few forms, however, belong to a dialect which more closely corresponds to Hodgson's Bāhing. Those forms have been printed within parenthesis.

According to Mr. Gait, the Jimdars speak more than one dialect. It is probable that the Dūmis and Bāhings are sub-tribes of the Jimdars. We have not, however, sufficient information about the various Nepalese tribes and their habitat, and I therefore give the Rāi texts below under the head of Rāi, as I have received them.

AUTHORITIES—

Hodgson, B. H.,—Continuation of the Comparative Vocabulary of the several Dialects of the Kirúntee Language. Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. xxvi, 1857, pp. 350 and ft. Reprinted in Missellaneous Essays relating to Indian Subjects. Vol. i, London, 1880, pp. 194 and ft. Contains Bähing and Dümi vocabularies.

Hodgson, B. H.,—Bāhing Vocabulary. Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. xxvi, 1857, pp. 486-and ff.; Vol. xxvii, 1858, pp. 393 and ff. Reprinted in Miscellaneous Essays relating to Indian Subjects. Vol. i, London, 1880, pp. 320 and ff. Contains a Bāhing vocabulary, grammar, and a specimen of the dialect.

HUNTER, H. H.,—A Comparative Dictionary of the Languages of India and High Asia. London, 1868.

The remarks on Rai grammar which follow are based on the Parable of the Prodigal Son reproduced on pp. 380 and ff., and on such forms in the list of words as belong to the same dialect. A full analysis of the Bahing dialect has been given above on pp. 327 and ff.

Pronunciation.—Short and long vowels are sometimes interchanged. Thus, the ablative suffix $k\bar{a}$ also occurs as ka. The final vowel is sometimes dropped altogether; thus, kusta-k, going; but $phu-c\bar{h}u-ka$, arriving.

I and e, u and o, respectively, are sometimes interchanged; thus, ngeru, finished; ngirum, finishing: mo, were; mu-sa, being. Instead of o we often find wa; thus, o and wa, my.

I is sometimes interchangeable with u; thus, lal-bu, and lal-bi, before. The final bu, bi in this word is the usual suffix of the locative, which is commonly written bi. The actual pronunciation is perhaps $b\ddot{u}$.

A or \bar{a} is sometimes also interchangeable with o; thus, mom and mam, that; ya-bu and yo-bi, behind.

The dialect has four gutturals, four palatals, four dentals, and four labials. The cerebrals t and d occur in some few words. It is not certain if their pronunciation differs from that of the corresponding dentals.

D and t are interchanged in words such as lu-tu and lu-du, said. Instead of $n\tilde{a}$, name, Hodgson gives nang under the head of $D\tilde{u}mi$.

Prefixes.—The prefixes used in the formation of words are mostly pronominal. The prefix u, which is originally an abbreviated form of the personal pronoun of the third person, is often used as a mere formative; thus, u-nu, nose; u-kam, mouth; u-chu, son. If such words are qualified by a possessive pronoun of the first or second persons, the prefix u is replaced by o or wa, my; \bar{a} , thy, respectively. The prefix does not necessarily belong to the word, but such ideas as 'nose,' 'mouth,' 'son,' etc., are not conceived in the abstract but put into relation with somebody, so that, instead of saying 'nose,' etc., we say 'my nose,' 'thy nose,' 'his nose,' etc., according to circumstances.

Articles.—There are no articles. The numeral tik-pu, one, is often used as an indefinite article. If the qualified noun denotes a human being, the Aryan $jan\bar{a}$, person, is sometimes substituted for the final pu of tik-pu; thus, $tik-jan\bar{a}$ minu, one-person man, a man.

Nouns—Gender.—The natural gender is distinguished by using different words or by adding words denoting the gender; thus, pu, father; mu, mother: $s\tilde{a}ry\tilde{a}$, bull; bhi, cow: khibu, dog; khibu-me, bitch: chhangur bokā, he geat; chhangur, she geat; darhya mirga, a male deer; mirga me, a female deer: wa-lanchu, brother; wa-michun, sister.

Number.—There are two numbers, the singular and the plural. The usual suffixes of the plural are mul and hām; thus, pu-mul, fathers; chākara-hām, servants.

Case.—The subject of intransitive verbs and the object are not distinguished by means of any suffix. The base alone is also used as a dative; thus, chākara-hām lu-ti-ni,

servants said, he said to the servants. Sometimes, however, the Aryan suffix $l\bar{a}i$, for, is used instead; thus, $pu-l\bar{a}i$, to the father.

The subject of transitive verbs is usually put in the case of the agent, which is also used as an instrumental. It is formed by adding the suffix \bar{a} ; thus, $pu-\bar{a} lu-du$, the father-by said; $riba-\bar{a} pud\bar{a}$, ropes-with bind.

The suffix of the ablative is ka, which is usually preceded by one of the suffixes la or bi; thus, pu-la-ka, from a father; tam-bi-ka, from here.

Bi is the usual suffix of the locative and terminative. Thus, kim-bi, in the house; khur-bi, upon his neck. It has already been remarked that the final i of this postposition sometimes interchanges with u. Compare the compound postposition gho-bu, in the interior of, in, into. The suffix la which often precedes the ka of the ablative is probably another suffix of the locative. Compare yo-lam, after; yo-pi, behind.

The usual suffix of the genitive is pu or po; thus, pu-pu, of a father; min-po, of a man. The governing noun is often repeated by means of a pronominal prefix before the governed noun; thus, mam-po u-pu, him-of his-father, his father.

Another genitive suffix m occurs in forms such as del-bi-m tik-pu pastya, village-in-of a shopkeeper, a shopkeeper of the village. It is not used as a genitive suffix in the proper sense of the word, but is added to other forms in order to transform them into adjectives or relative participles.

Other relations are indicated by means of postpositions, such as de-bi, near; $k\bar{a}i$, with; lal-bi, before; yo-bi, behind; lim-bi, under, etc.

Adjectives.—Adjectives precede the noun they qualify and are often put in the genitive; thus, ghala-pu siso, great famine; jaadu chuchu, a bad boy.

The particle of comparison is *likandu*; thus, *um-po wā-michum likandu um-po wā-lanchu rippu mota*, his sister than his brother tall is, his brother is taller than his sister.

Numerals.—The first numerals are given in the list of words. The numerals twelve to nineteen are formed by adding two, three, etc., to tik, i.e. tik-ri, ten. Thus, tik-sak, twelve; tik-maluk, fourteen. Note tik-raj, seventeen. 'Eleven' is tikluk. Similarly are formed sāk-tik, twenty-one; sājh-masi, twenty-two; sāk-sup, twenty-three; sāk-pok, twenty-five; sāk-jak, twenty-six; sup-tik, thirty-one; sup-si, thirty-three; sup-bhaluk, thirty-four; suph-jhak, thirty-six; tap-tambu (sic), thirty-nine; bhāluk-ti, forty-one; bhāluk-bhā, forty-four, etc.

Note also jhakari, sixty; rākari, seventy; rekkuri, eighty; tamburi, ninety.

Many of these forms are curious. The whole method of counting is, however, Indo-Chinese.

The numerals precede the noun they qualify.

Pronouns.—The principal forms of the personal pronouns will be found in the table which follows. There are no traces of a dual in the specimens forwarded for the purposes of this Survey. Hodgson's Dūmi vocabulary contains separate forms for the dual, and also double sets of the dual and the plural of the first person, one including and one excluding the person addressed. I have added several forms from Hodgson's

vocabulary within parenthesis. I have also followed him in distinguishing between an exclusive and inclusive form of the dual and the plural of the first person.

ang, angu, I. ang-ā, by me. o-po, wa-po, o, wa, my. (i-chi, I and thou.)	ānu, ānā, (in), thou. ānā-ā, by thee. ā-po, ā, thy. (ye-chi, you two.)	um, mom, mam, yākam, he. um-ā, etc., by him. um-po, u, etc., his. (um-mi, yākam-su, they two.)
(ō-chū, I and he.) (ī-chi-po, mine and thine.)	(ye-chi-po, ān-chi-pq, of you two.)	(um-ni-po, mom-ni-po, yākam- su-po, of them two.)
(ō-chu-po, ã-chi-po, my and his.) i-ki, in-ki, I and you. ang-ku. I and they.	ān-ni, you-	$k\bar{a}$ -mul, mam-hām, etc., they.

Hodgson further gives $\bar{o}nge$, I and they, genitive ok-vo, ok. Ap-po, your, has been influenced by Hindi.

The form mom, he, looks like a noun of agency formed from the verb substantive mo by adding the pronoun um. A suffix m, i.e. perhaps um, is not infrequently used to form nouns of agency and relative participles from other words. It corresponds to Bāhing me. Thus, mam del-bi-m tik-janā minu, that village-in-being one-person man, a man of that village; ang dok-ta-m ansa-bhāg, I get-shall-that share, the share which I shall get; mit-chu-m, died-he, the dead one dead.

The forms o, wa, my; \tilde{a} , thy; u, his, are used as pronominal prefixes with nouns; thus, o-ngasi-hām, my companions; $\tilde{a}p$ -po \tilde{a} -wā, your brother; um-po u-chu, his son. It has already been remarked that the prefix u is sometimes used as a mere formative. Compare \tilde{u} -sūta, raw, in Hodgson's Dūmi vocabulary.

The verb is, as is also the case in other connected forms of speech, a noun, and the pronominal prefixes should, therefore, be expected to be used with verbs. So far as we can judge from the specimens, this is, however, only the case with the prefix \bar{a} , thy. Compare *bhoj* \bar{a} -mu, feast you-made; \bar{a} nu sadhai ang $k\bar{a}$ i \bar{a} -mo-la, you always me with you-are; \bar{a} -ki-du, thou-boughtest. Compare Limbu.

The forms ngu and nga are apparently used as suffixes of the first person. Compare $m\bar{a}$ -ngu, I did; mu-nga- $t\bar{a}$, I am doing; mo- $ng\bar{a}$, I was; be- $ng\bar{a}$, give me; mo- $ng\bar{a}$ -ni, make me.

Demonstrative pronouns are tum, tom, tam, this; mom, mam, $y\bar{a}kam$, that. Compare the personal pronoun of the third person.

The interrogative pronouns are bo and a-bo, who? $m\bar{a}$, what? hit-po, how many? etc. A form $\bar{a}s$, who? must be inferred from $\bar{a}s$ - $\bar{a}s$ -yo, by anyone. Compare $m\bar{a}s$ -yo, anything, which word shows that indefinite pronouns are formed by adding yo, even, also, to the interrogatives.

An interrogative pronoun is sometimes also used as a kind of relative; thus, o-po mā go tum āp-pong, mine what is this thine, all that I have is thine. Relative clauses are, however, usually expressed by means of relative participles.

Verbs.—It has already been remarked that the verb is still virtually a noun. The subject of transitive verbs is put in the case of the agent; there is no passive; and verbal

The numerals above four are usually counted in hands, feet and scores; thus, kolu got' khulup, one hand entire, five; nāyung got' khulup, two hands entire, ten; nāyung got' khulup-hā kolu got' khulup, two hands entire with one hand entire, fifteen; le got' khulup, feet hands all, twenty; cholôk or kolu cholôk, one score, twenty; bli-ning cholôk, four score, eighty; ūning cholôk or kolu got' cholôk, five score, hundred.

Pronouns.—Pronouns are in most respects inflected like nouns. There are however separate genitive bases, which are also used before the suffixes khen of the ablative and be of the locative, as also before postpositions such as nung, with. The dual is often indicated by adding the numeral nak-pu, two; thus, go nak-pu, we two. There are, however, besides, separate dual suffixes in the two first persons, viz.: chi in the nest and chhe, chhi, in the second. Similarly we find a plural suffix ki in the genitive of the first person and ne, ni in the second person. Compare Rāi i-chi, I and thom: o-chū, I and he; ye-chi, you two; in-ki, I and you; ang-ku, I and they; ān-ni, you.

There are, moreover, two sets of forms in the dual and plural of the first person, not however in the nominative, but only in the genitive. Compare the table which follows:—

		First person.	Second person.	Third person.
Sing.	Nom	gō	gên	watki; wi; i
	lastr	g*-kā	gān-kā	wathi-kš ; mī-kš ; ī-kš
	Gen	ang	ung	ā, rāthi-m, mī-nung, ī-nung
	Abl	ang-khon	ung-khen	wathi-m khen; mi-nung-khon; i-nung khen
Dual	Nem	gō-xākpu	gön-chhe	wathi nāk-pu ; mī-nāk-pu ; š-nāk-pu
	Gen	ang-chi (my and his', ung-chi (my and thy)	ung-chèi	wathi-m nāk-pu-m; mi-nāk-pu-m; i-nāk-pu-m
	Instr	gb-nākpu-kā, g*-kā nāk-pu-kā	gön-chhe-hā	wathi nāh-pu-hā, etc.
Plur.	Nom	gō kādta	göns	vothi khāta ; mī-khāta ; ī-khāta
	Gen	ang-ki (my and their), ung-ki (my and your)	118-11i	wathi-m khāta-m, mi-nung khāta-m, i-nung khāta-m
	Instr	gōkkāta-hā, g*-hā kkāta-kā	göne-kā	wathi kkāta kā, etc.

The pronouns of the third person are also used as demonstrative pronouns; thus, \vec{s} , this; $m\vec{s}$ and $south\vec{s}$, that.

The numeral nāk-pu, two, is replaced by nāng-mi and nāyung if the pronouns refer to women or irrational beings, respectively.

Interrogative pronouns are su and suna, who? mische, what? hanung, which? An interrogative pronoun is sometimes used as a kind of relative; thus, hanung got-ha to-pung-mi mi no-mi, which hand-by struck-him-I that pains me, the hand with which f vol. III, part I.

struck him pains me. Usually, however, relative participles are used instead; thus, jo-vi singtong thā thik-to, eating man not hinder, don't hinder the man who eats.

Verbs.—The verb is the most interesting feature in Vāyu grammar. It is often a mere noun without different forms to denote the person of the subject. In such cases the subject of transitive verbs is put in the case of the agent. On the other hand, there is a long series of forms in which the person of the subject and the object are indicated by means of pronominal affixes inserted in the verb. We can therefore distinguish two different principles prevailing in Vāyu conjugation. A comparison of the forms usual in Bāhing and other dialects, in which pronominal suffixes are used to a much greater extent than in the case of Vāyu, points to the conclusion that an older system of indicating the subject and object by means of pronominal suffixes is on its way towards being superseded by the much simpler Tibeto-Burman principle, according to which the verb is a kind of noun incapable of inflexion in person and number.

The number of tenses is limited to two, a present, which is also used as a future, and a past, and even these two are often identical in form. In narrative sentences, a suffix mi or m must be added to all verbal tenses in order to show that the action really takes place; thus the base $ph\bar{\imath}$ means 'to come,' and $wathi \ ph\bar{\imath} \ ki \ m\bar{\alpha}$ means he comes or not, does he come? If we want to indicate that he really comes, mi must be added; thus, $wathi \ ph\bar{\imath}-mi$, he comes.

Subject.—The person of the subject is in many forms indicated by means of pronominal infixes which are inserted between the base and the copula *mi*, *m*. The details are as follows.

The affix of the first person singular is ngo or ng; compare Rāi nga, Limbu ng, etc.; thus, $ph\bar{i}$ -ngo-mi, I go; $t\bar{a}$ -ng-mi, I place. After labials ng is replaced by m; thus, jyop'-mu-m, I am tired; hom-mu-m, I am tasted. In to'mi, I strike, the m seems to represent both the pronominal suffix and the copula.

In si-n-mi, I kill him; si-n-chhe-m, I kill them two; si-n-me-m, I kill them, the pronominal infix ng has apparently been contracted into one sound with the suffix indicating the object. Similarly the suffix ng is dropped or contracted before the suffix no, nu, which denotes an object of the second person; thus, $h\bar{a}$ -nu-m, I give thee; $h\bar{a}$ -no-ne-m, I give you.

A subject of the second person singular is not usually indicated by means of a pronominal infix. In the base no, to be, however, the second person singular is no-nu-m, art. The affix nu in this form is identical with the affix no, nu in forms such as $h\bar{a}$ -nu-m, I give thee; top-nu-m, I strike thee. They can just as well be translated 'thou art given by me,' 'thou art struck by me.' The suffix no, nu is identical with Kanāw'rī n, Thamī $n\bar{a}$, etc.

A subject of the third person singular is not indicated by means of any affix.

The first person dual is indicated by adding the affixes chhok, last chhong, if the person addressed is excluded, and chhik, past chhing if he is included; thus, phi-chhok-mi, we go; phi-chhong-mi, phi-chhing-mi, we went.

The affix chhik is also used to denote the second and third persons dual in the present tense of intransitive verbs; thus, phi-chhik-mi, you two, or, they two, come; sis-chhik-mi, you two, or, they two are killed. Forms such as sis-chhik-mi are also used as actives. In such cases, however, the subject is separately marked by being put in

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the case of the agent. That the affix chhik does not really denote an active subject of the second and third persons is shown by the fact that it is replaced by chhe whenever a second affix indicating the object is added; thus, sit-ngo-chhe-m, you two, or, they two, kill me. The affix chhe is also used with intransitive verbs in the past tense; thus, phi-chhe-m, you two, or, they two, went.

In the first person plural the affixes kol, past ki-kong, are added if the person addressed is not included; thus, hā-ti-kok-mi, we give him; phī-ki-kong-mi, we went.

Kok is changed to pop after labials; thus, dam-pop-mi, we are lost. Similarly ki-kong becomes pi-kong after labials, and ti-kong after dentals; thus, dam-pi-kong-mi, we were lost; ho-ti-kong-mi, we talked, from hot, talk. Ti-kong is also used in such transitive verbs as indicate the object by means of a suffix beginning with t; thus, hā-ti-kong-mi, we gave him; but hā-ki-kong-mi, we were given. The corresponding reflexive form is chi-kong; thus, im-chi-kong-mi, we sleep.

If the person addressed is included the affixes are ke (after labials pe), past ki-keng (with the same parallel forms as in the case of ki-kong); thus, phi-ke-m, we came; im-chi-keng-mi, we slept.

The affixes of the second and third persons plural are ne, me, respectively; thus, phī-ne-m, you come, you came; phī-me-m, they come, they came.

Object.—Reference has occasionally been made to affixes denoting the object in addition to those indicating the subject. The use of two affixes, one denoting the subject and another denoting the object, in one and the same form is not common. It is restricted to cases where the subject is in the plural and the object in the singular, or vive versã.

An object of the first person singular is indicated by means of the same infix as a subject of the same person; thus, hā-su-ng, give me; thā hā-ngo, don't give me. Such forms can of course also be considered as passives, and the affix as the affix of the subject. The affix ng, ngo can be followed by the affixes chhe, ne, and me, denoting an agent of the second or third person dual, the second person plural, and the third person plural, respectively; thus, to'-mo-chhe-m, you two (or they two) strike me; hā-ngo-ne-m, you give me; hā-ngo-me-m, they give me; top-su-ng-me-m, they struck me, etc. In forms such as gō gōn-hā mut-ping-ku-m, I thee-by to-stay gave, you made me stay, there is no affix to denote that the object is of the first person. The form ping-ku-m usually means 'gave him.' If it is correctly used, the passage is an instance of Tibeto-Burman principles supplanting the old conjugation of the dialect.

An object of the second person is only indicated with a subject of the first person singular. The affixes are no (nn), dual no-chhe, plural no-ne. It has already been remarked that there is no affix to denote the subject. Thus, top-nu-m, I strike thee; top-no-chhe-m, I strike you two; top-no-ne-m, I strike you. It is possible that the affix ng of the first person singular has been fused into one sound with the following n. If that is not the case, the restriction of the use of such forms to those cases in which the subject is of the first person singular, can only be a secondary development. A form

such as top-nu-m, I strike thee, would then be passive and should properly be translated 'thou art struck.' Such verbs as distinguish the active from the passive by using different vowels in the base, add the object affixes of the second person to the passive form; thus, to-no-ne-m, I place you; but tā-ng-me-m, I place them.

An object of the third person singular is usually indicated by adding an affix to the base. In many cases there are different affixes to denote the direct and the indirect objects, ko being used for the direct and to for the indirect one; thus, yeng-ko, see him; yeng-to, see for him: $j\bar{a}-ko$, eat it; $j\bar{a}-to$, eat for him: $kh\bar{u}-ko$, steal it; $kh\bar{u}-to$, steal for him: po'-po, lick it; pop-to, lick it for him. The last instance shows that k is changed to p in the usual way after labials.

In many cases the affix to is used for the direct as well as for the indirect object; thus, chek-to, hate him, and, for him; sis-to, kill him, and, for him, etc.

If the subject is of the first person singular the affix ng, ngo, is inserted between ko, to and the copula; thus, hā-tu-ng-mi, I give to him, I gave to him; sis-tu-ng-mi, I killed him; tā-ku-ng-mi, I placed him. Some verbs omit the affix of the object in the present. This is the case with such verbs as have different vowels in the active and the passive; thus, tā-ng-mi, I place him; compare to-ngo-m, I am placed. Verbs ending in t, which change this t to s before the affix t, do not appear to have any mark referring to the object in the first person singular of the present; thus, si-n-mi, I kill him. The n inserted before mi in this form is probably derived from the final t of the base and the pronominal affix ng of the first person singular. Similarly transitive verbs ending in p drop the affix of the object in the same forms; thus, to'-mi, I hit him. It is possible that to'-mi is simply a passive form 'he is hit.' If not, the m in mi must be derived from a double m, one the initial consonant of the verb substantive, the other the regular form of the affix of the first person singular after labials, the base of the verb being top. This latter explanation is probably the right one, two ms being used if the object is of the third person dual or plural. In such cases the affixes chhe, me, respectively, are inserted between the affix of the subject and the verb substantive; thus, to-m-chhe-m, I strike them two; to-m-me-m, I strike them; si-n-chhe-m, I kill them two; si-n-me-m, I kill them; hā-tu-ng-chhe-m, I give them two; hā-tu-ng-me-m, I give them.

It has already been remarked that there are no pronominal affixes to denote a subject of the second and third persons singular. Such forms are distinguished by using the suffix of the agent after the subject. If the subject as well as the object is of the third person singular, such forms can be considered as actives as well as passives. In the second person with an object of the third person singular, the form is always identical with that of the third person. The affix of the object is always added in the past; thus, sis-tu-m, thou killedest him, he killed him; to'-pu-m, struckest, struck, him. In the present, on the other hand, the passive forms are commonly used; thus, to'-mi, thou strikest him, he strikes him, he is struck; $h\bar{a}-tu-m$, givest him, gives him, he is given. The affix of the object is added if it is to and the verb does not end in a t; thus, thik-tu-m, he shuts it, etc.; bong-tu-m, pleasest him, pleases him, is pleased, and so on.

If the subject is in the dual or the plural, an object of the third person singular is not separately marked. If the subject is of the third person the affix to is added as above, in the active as well as in the passive: thus. hā-to-chhe-m. they two give. or, are

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given. In the past tense the affixes to. ko, etc., are always added; thus, is-to-chke-m. they two killed him: td-ko-me-m, they put him, etc.

Voice.—There are three voices, the active, the passive, and the middle. The active and passive voices are distinguished by the use of pronominal affixes indicating the object in the case of the former, which are dropped in the latter. Intransitive verbs do not use affixes of the object. Their form therefore agrees with the passive of transitives.

It has already been remarked that the active and passive voices are often confounded, many forms being used with an active as well as with a passive meaning. In such cases the common Tibeto-Burman principle of distinguishing the subject and the object, not in the verb, but by means of additions to the noun, is resorted to the subject of transitive verbs being put in the case of the agent; thus, gon-hā wathi yeng-ku-m, theeby he was-seen. The meaning is, however, sometimes left to be inferred from the context, as is also the case in other Tibeto-Burman languages; thus, Khāsa-khāta Hāyu it-ke-m, Khas Hāyu called-are-we, we are called Hāyu by the Khas.

Three verbs, $t\bar{a}$, to place; $j\bar{a}$, to eat; and $p\bar{a}$. to do, change their \bar{a} to o in most passive forms. Other verbs distinguish the two voices only by means of pronominal affixes. Those forms which differ in the active and the passive are the first person singular, the second person singular of the past, and the first person plural. In the second and third persons dual and plural an object of the first person singular is indicated by inserting the pronominal affix ngo; see above under the head of object. Other forms do not differ for the active and the passive; thus, sis-tu-m means 'he killed' and 'he was killed'; sis-chhik-mi, they two kill, or, are killed. It will be seen that the form sis-tu-m contains the affix of the object tu, and is, consequently, an active form. Sis-chhik-mi, on the other hand, has a passive form.

The middle voice is formed from transitive, and also from some intrausitive, verbs by inserting che, dual na, plural chi, between the base and the personal affixes denoting the subject. Transitive bases ending in a vowel nasalize it before the infixes che and chi; thus, pā-ng-mi, I do it; pā-chu-ng-mi, I do it for myself.

Tense.—It has already been remarked that the dialect does not possess more than two finite tenses, the present and the past, and that the difference between the two is not great. The conjugational tables in Hodgson's Vāyu grammar are probably incomplete, and the distribution of the various forms on the present and the past sometimes makes the impression of being artificial.

It has already been remarked that the present and past tenses are distinguished by using different affixes to denote the subject in the dual and in the first person plural. The affix of the second person plural is ne in the present as well as in the past. A preceding sound is, however, usually changed to a nasal in the past; thus, dak-ne-m, you wish; dak-ne-m or dāng-ne-m, you wished; jyop-ne-m, you are tired; jyōm-ne-m, you were tired; hot-ne-m, you talk; hō-ne-m, you talked. It will be seen that a preceding vowel is, in such cases, lengthened, and that n is dropped before n; compare also sit-ne-m, you kill; sē-ne-m, you killed, with change of the long ā to ē. The lengthening is accordingly due to a kind of contraction between the dropped consonant and the following n, and it should be noted that vowels are as a rule lengthened as a kind of compensation when a consonant is dropped; thus, dā-mē, from dam-mē, he is full.

The termination of the second and third persons singular is the simple copula mi or m, in the present as well as in the past; thus, $ph\bar{i}-mi$, comest, comes, camest, came. A preceding sound is usually treated in the same way as before ne in the past; thus, dak-mi, desires; $d\bar{a}ng-mi$, desired, etc. To judge from Hodgson's grammar the past is often also distinguished from the present by inserting an affix denoting the object; thus, sit-mi, thou killest; sis-tu-m, thou killedest. Similarly Hodgson also gives sis-chhik-mi, they two kill, but sis-to-chhe-m, they two killed. This distinction, however, seems to be artificial, the forms containing an affix of the object being properly active, the rest passive forms. Forms such as $h\bar{a}-tu-m$, he gives, he gave, show that the affix of the object is also used in the present.

There remains the first person singular. The difference established between the present and the past in Hodgson's grammar is apparently sometimes artificial; thus, si-n-mi, I kill (him); sis-tu-ny-mi, I killed him, in which case the affix of the object is only added in the past. Forms such as hā-tu-ny-mi, I give, or gave, him, show that the use or non-use of the object affix does not mark a difference of time. There is apparently only one affix of the first person which is really a tense affix of the past, viz., the affix su-ny, which is used in intransitive and passive verb; thus, hā-nyo-m, I am given; hā-su-ny-mi, I was given. In transitive bases ending in nasals the first person singular of the present ends in su-ny-mi, as does also the past tense of the passive; thus, piny-su-ny-mi, I give, I was given.

The table which follows registers the present and past tenses of the bases $ph\bar{s}$, to come; dak', to desire; dam, to be full; and hot, to talk.

			1	1	i	1	;			ı	.
Part	ho-sung-mi	hön-mi	Ank-20	in hour chimi	hurchling mi	has-chhe-m	Asserbar-m	ko-ti-kõng-mi	ho ti-keng-mi	A6-xc-s	ken-me-m
Present.	ћо€ - нуо-т	hol'-mi	hol'-mi	kos-chkok-mi	hor chlik-mi	hou-rhhik-mi	hus chiek-ms	hot-kak-mı	hot'-ke-m	kot'ne-m	Auf me m
Past.	dam-sung-mi	वंब-माः	dā mi	авт-сһћонд-ші	dam-chking-mi	dam-chhe-m	dam-chhe-w	айт-рі-кинд-ті	ddm-pi-krng mi	dam-n:-m	4 й- же-т
Present,	dd-mu-m	dā-mi	dā-m;	dam-chhok-mi	dam-chlik-m;	dam-chhilomi	dam-chhik-mi	dăm-pop-mi	адт.ре-т	व तक्ष-॥१-१॥	dā-ma-m
Past.	dak-sung-ms	disng.ms	dāng-mi	dak-ckhong-mi	dak-chhing-mi	dak-chhe-m	dak-chhe-m	dak'-ki-kõng-mi	dak'-ki-keng-mi	นักฎาพ-m	ďak·me-m
Present.	dak-ngo-m	dak-mi	dak-mi	dak-chłok-m;	duk-chhik-mi	duk-chhik-mi	duk-chhik-mi	dak-kok-mi	dak-ko-m	dak-ne-m	dak-mo-m
Past	phi-sung-mi	pht-m;	pht-ms	pt.ckhang-mi	pht-c ^t hing-mi	phi-chhe-m	pht-chhe-m	phi-ki-köng-mi	phī-ki-keng-mi	phi-ne-m	phi-mo-m
Present.	pki-ngo-m	pat-mi	į.hl·mi	phi-chhok-ms	phi-chlik-mi	phi-chlik-mi	pht-chlik-mi	phi-kok-mi	phi-ke-m	phi-ne-m	ры-тө-т
	Sing. 1	GR	· •	final 1 exel.	1 fact.		.	Plur. 1 exei.	linel.		cc C

It has already been noted that the object is indicated in various ways in transitive verbs. The details will be found in Hodgson's grammar. In this place we shall only give the present and past tenses of the active and the passive, and the middle voice of the base ping, to send, to give. In the middle voice there is no difference between the present and the past except in the dual and the first person plural.

			A	CTIVE.	PA	seive.	Middle Present.
			Present.	Past.	Present.	Past.	Edddie Present.
Sing.	1 .		ping-sung-mi	ping-kung-mi	ping-ngo-m	ping-sung-mi	ptny-chung-mi
	2 .	•		ping-ku-m	ping-mi	ping-mi	ping-che-m
	3 .			ping-ku-m	ping-mi		ping-che-m
Dual	1 exel.	•			ping-ckhok-mi	ping-ch hong-mi	ping-na-chhok-m
	1 incl.				ping-chhik-mi	ping-chhing-mi	ping-na-chhik-wé
	2 .	•			ping-chhik-mi	ping-chhe-m	ping-na-chhik-mi
	3 .	•		ping-ko-chhe-m	ping-chhik-mi		ping-na-chhik-mi
Iur.	1 excl.	•			ping-kok-mi	ping-ki-kong-mi	ping-chi-kok-mi
	1 incl.	•			ping-ke-m	ping-ki-keng-mi	ping-cki-ke-m
	3 .				ping-ne-m	ping-ne-m	ping-chi-ne-m
	8			ping-ko-me-m	ping-me-m		ping-chi-me-m

The missing forms of the active must be supplied from the passive, and vice versá. The past tense of the middle agrees with the present in all forms outside the dual and the first person plural which are as follows; dual 1 excl. ping-na-chhong-mi; 1 incl. ping-na-chhing-mi; 2. ping-na-chhe-m; 3. ping-na-chhe-m; plur. 1 excl. ping-chi-kong-mi, 1 incl. ping-chi-keng-mi.

Other forms are ping-nu-m, I send, or sent, thee; ping-no-chhe-m, I send, or sent, you two; ping-no-ne-m, I send, or sent, you; ping-sung-chhe-m, I send them two; ping-sung-me-m, I send them; ping-ku-ng-chhe-m, I sent them two; ping-ku-ng-me-m, I sent them; ping-ngo-chhe-m, you two, or they two, send me; ping-sung-chhe-m, you two, or

forms are freely used in connexion with postpositions. It has also been remarked that pronominal prefixes and suffixes are, to a small extent, used in order to denote the subject and object. This tendency towards pronominalization is, however, less pronounced than in other connected diabets such as Limbu.

Verb substantive.—The most common have of the verb substantive is mo or mu. It has, besides, the fuller meaning of sitting down, residing. In addition to mo we also find go. Other bases which are used with the same meaning are chhu and wa, and perhaps also ng in ap-po-ng, it is thine. The final ng of this latter word is perhaps only a euphonic nasalization of the vowel.

Finite verb.—The materials available are not sufficient for giving a detailed sketch of Rāi conjugation. The remarks which follow give a short survey of the principal forms contained in the specimen.

Present time.—The base alone is used as a present; thus, n-mi min wa, thy name what is?

The most common suffix of the present tense is to or $t\bar{a}$; thus, any mo-ta, I am; ang-a yām-ta, I strike; ānā-ā yām-ta, you strike. In mn-nga-ta, I am doing, the infix nga apparently denotes the subject.

Some verbs insert an s before ta; thus, mis-ta, I die; khus-ta, I go, thou goest.

In angku muk- $t\bar{u}$, we are, a suffix k has been added to the base before $t\bar{a}$. Mu-k is formally a participle meaning 'being.' The suffix $t\bar{a}$ is, therefore, probably a form of the copula.

The suffix ta can also be preceded by other suffixes, such as ja, tha, thing; thus, mo-ja-ta, he is sitting; $um-\bar{u}$ yam-tha-ta, he strikes; um khus-thing-tu, he goes. The last mentioned form shows that ta is sometimes replaced by tv. Instances only occur in the third person singular. Compare, however, past time, below.

In ānā-ā yam-tha-tis, thou strikest, tis has been substituted for ta. Another suffix of the present is ni. which is usually preceded by other suffixes such as ti and bi; thus, dok-ti-ni, they are getting; ang-mul (sic) ā-mo-bi-ni, you are. An m has been added in umul-hām-ā yom-ti-ni-m, they strike. Compare the remarks on the formation of nouns of agency under the head of pronouns.

A suffix la oveurs in ann a-mo-la, you are. It is perhaps a slip for ta.

The forms goe lākshi, we go; gāni lawni, you go; gumikāgā lawni, they go, in the list, have not been taken from the same dialect as that represented by the Parable and the bulk of the list. Compare Bāhing.

Past time.—The base alone is also used as a past tense; thus, mo, they were, he lived; ang mo-nga. I was; javaaph bi, answer he gave, he answered.

The suffix ni, which is sometimes preceded by ti or di, is used in forms such as mu-ni, they made; lu-ti-ni, he said; se-mu-di-ni, he made him tend (pigs).

A common suffix is u, which is usually preceded by consonants such as t or d, ch, and n. Thus, kān-nu nger-u, squandering finished, he wasted; lu-tu and lu-du, he said; yom-du, I have besten; ā-ki-du, thou boughtest; mu-nu, he has made.

U is probably connected with the suffix yo in lam-thi-yo, I have walked.

In $m\bar{a}$ -ng-u, I have done, the suffix u is preceded by ng, which is probably a suffix of the first person singular.

Most of the forms mentioned above can be followed by the suffix m. They are then properly nouns of agency or relative participles, but can also be used with the function of ordinary verbs. Thus, go-m, he was; mo-m, thou wast, they were; $\bar{a}n-ni$ $\bar{a}-mo-ni-m$, you were; $\bar{a}-chu-m$, he said; li-chu-m, he became alive. In khu-chu-m thiyo, (I, thou, or he) went; yom-du-m thiyo, I had beaten, thiyo has been added. Thiyo probably means 'was,' and yom-du-m thiyo would then literally mean 'I was a beater.'

A suffix \bar{a} occurs in forms such as $angku \ mu-k-\bar{a}$, we were; $khu-ch-\bar{a}$, he went; $li-ch-\bar{a}$, he became alive; $chhukh\bar{a}$, it arose, etc.

Forms such as don-po, he was found, are properly participles.

The forms given under Nos. 185-190, 214-216 in the list belong to another dialect.

Future.—The suffix ta or tu is also used with a future meaning; thus, ang lu-o-nu \bar{a} -s-ta, I saying will-say; chhuk- $t\bar{a}$, it will be; ang chhup-tu, I shall be; $\bar{a}ng$ - \bar{a} yom-tu, I shall beat.

Imperative.—The base alone is used as an imperative; thus, tu, put; bi, give; be. $ng\bar{a}$, give me.

A common suffix is ni; thus, mo-ni, sit; yum-i-ni, beat; $mo-ng\bar{a}-ni$, make me. It is sometimes preceded by another suffix chi; thus, pi-chi-ni, take; repma-chi-ni, stand; kap-mu-chi-ni, cause him to put on. Note lu-nu-ni, say.

Another suffix is \bar{a} , which is sometimes preceded by other suffixes such as ch, t, or d; thus, $pi-\bar{a}$, come; $lam-thiy-\bar{a}$, walk; micha, die; $khuch\bar{a}$, go; $l\bar{a}t\bar{a}$, draw; $pud\bar{a}$, bind; $send\bar{a}$, look.

The forms ending in ti in the sentence $in-ki-\bar{a}$ ju-o-ka-ti tung-ki-ti moj muk-ti, us-by eat-should drink-should, merry make-should, let us eat, drink, and make merry, are perhaps future forms.

Verbal nouns and participles.—The most common verbal noun is formed by adding the suffix nu; thus, lu-nu, to say; $moj \ mu-nu$, in order to make merry; $chhu\bar{a}-nu-l\bar{a}i$, being for, to be. Compare the suffix nu mentioned under the head of past time.

Another verbal noun is formed by adding m or om; thus, muk-ti-m, to do; ho-m pachhi, after the coming; yom-om, to beat. In ho-lom-ā, by his arriving, because he came, it is preceded by an l which should perhaps be compared with la mentioned under the head of present.

The suffix m is also used to form relative and verbal participles; thus, ang dok-ta-m ansa-bhāg, I getting share, the share that I shall get; mitchu-m gom, dead was.

The verbal noun ending in nu is also used as a relative participle; thus, $po-\bar{a}$ ju-nu bhusa, pigs-by eating husks, the husks which the pigs ate.

A common relative participle is formed by adding pu, i.e. probably the suffix of the genitive, to a participle ending in k; thus, $mam\ sahar-bi\ mu-k-pu\ mam\ minu$, that townin living that man, that man who lived in that town; $sampati\ ju-k-pu\ tum\ \bar{a}-chu$, property eating this thy-son, this thy son who wasted thy property.

The various forms mentioned under the head of present, past, and future, above, are properly verbal nouns or participles, and are often used as such. Compare yom-jata, beating; chhuk-thing-ta, being; khus-thing-ta, going; khuchū, gone.

Forms such as ho-yo, coming-also; ho-pā-chu-yo, arriving-also, can be used as conjunctive participles. The most common conjunctive participle is, however, formed by

adding the suffix $k\bar{a}$, ka, or k, which is identical with the ablative suffix, to the various verbal bases; thus, $b\bar{a}tule$ mu-ka, together making, gathering; $yom-du-k\bar{a}$, having beaten; $khu-chu-k\bar{a}$, going; kus-ta-k, going; phuka-k, arising; ngini-k, hearing; $hu-chi-ni-k\bar{a}$, bringing, and so forth.

A suffix sa is used in forms such as dok-sa, getting; mu-sa, remaining.

Note finally the isolated forms ā-nā, saying; ās-ta, saying: lu-o-nu, saying.

Causals are apparently formed by suffixing lai or mu; thus, jo-lai-mi, he is grazing, from jo, eat; se-mu-di-ni, to-tend-caused, from se, tend.

Negative particle. —The negative verb is formed by prefixing $m\bar{a}$ and suffixing na; thus, $m\bar{x}$ dok-tu-na, he did not get; $m\bar{a}$ be-nga-na, you did not give to me (nga); $m\bar{a}$ dira-na. I am not worthy. Note $m\bar{a}$ bin-in-na, he did not give.

Order of Words.—The usual order of words is subject, object, verb. Qualifying words precede the qualified ones.

For further details the student is referred to the version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son which follows, and to the list of Standard Words and Phrases on pp. 409 and ff.

[No. 35.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

RĀI.

(NEPAL DARBAR.)

Tik-pu min-po sak-pu u-chu Sak-pu madhe kanchha, 'pu-à, mo. Two among younger, 'father-O, his-sons were. twoOne ansa-bhāg angu be-ngā,' ānā o-pu lu-tu. O-pu-ā dok-tam ang his-father said. give, saying His-father-by share me getting Ι kānchhā Mam-po vo-lam mam pu-ā iharā musa-khancha. chhutiā ansa allmaking-gave. That-of after thatyounger son-by share division tādo pardes khuchā. Ma-bi moia batu-le-mu-ka sampati together-making far foreign-country went. There in-debauchery property Kharcha musmo um-po ansa-bhāg-bim sampati jharā kānnu-ngeru. to-squander-finished. Expenditure property allshare-of his living ngiru-m pachhi \mathbf{mam} thāu-bi ghala-pu siso chhukhā. Mam mu-nu bigfamine after thatplace-in arose.He finishing making del-bim tik minu kāi khuchukā Mam janā huk-ho. dukh That country-of person man withgoing oneaestitute became. minu-ā sahar-bi muk-pu manı um-po kheti-bi Mam po mo. That city-in living thatman-by his field in swine stayed. mā-bin-in-na. Mam Ās-ā-yo mā-vo po-ā ju-nu se-mu-di-ni. Anyone-by anything not-gave. Those swine-by eaten to-graze-caused. u-mupu bhin-nu mā dok-tu-nā. U-sāni hom bhusa-ā-yo pachhi husks-with-even his-belly to-fill notgot. His-sense coming after hit-po sebantite-hām-ā kebā suba ā-chum. o-pu-po iu-nu dok-sa how-many servants muchbread 'my-father-of to-eat getting dok-ti-ni. Angu sukhā mista. Ang kustak yen-nu-yo o-pu phār-bi get. Ihunger die.I arising my-father to-spare-even near " ye lsura ānu-bi ang-a pāp māngu; ho-pā-chā, рā, angu God "O father, you-to me-by sin did: I coming, ā-chuye mā-dira-na. Angu lu-nu ãp-po āp-po your-Honour-of your-son say-to not-worthy. Mе your-Honour-of mo-ngā-ni," luo-nu-āsta,' ānā phukhak mam-po sebante-hem u-pu make-me," saying-will-say,' saying servant-like rising hi8 his-father de-bi khuchā. Mam chu dherai yākāng mo-yo, u-pu-ā dok-kha-tu, That 80% very far was-even, his-father-by saw. tokchhi-bi hep-kha-tu-ka bhul-phu-chuka ngi-chum-ā chuk-mu-du neck-on acking rumming-going, embracina kiss-made.

Chu-ā u-pu lu-du, e o-pu, Isura ā-mukhiāji-bi qēq Son-by his-father said, 'O my-father, God your-face-in ain. āngu; angu ā-chu lu-nu mā-dira-na.' Meyo pu-ā did; I thy-son to-say not-worthy.' But father-by māngu; angu ū-chu chākara-hām serrants lu-ti-ni, 'jāti gu huchi-ni-kā tam kap-mu-chi-ni; khur-bi chlukurim said, 'good cloth bringing klmto-put-on-cause; hand-on ring bhig-be-ni, u-phāli-bi juttā yo be-ni. Lau, "in-ki-ā ju-o-ka-ti to-put-on-give, his-feet-on slocs also give. IFell, " !!8-by shall-eat muk-ti," lu-nu-ni; e-chu mitehum tung-ki-ti moj gom, lichā: shall-drink merry shall-make." say; say dead was, lived; chāmum gom, don-po,' teni ana ma'n-ham-a ananda mu-ni. was-found,' thus lost was. saying them-by marry mude.

Mam dusapi chu kheti-lii mom-gom. He-yo kim dei-bi hopā-chu-yo That older son field-in was. Coming house near arriving bājā hānchhomum sora nginik, 11k jana elakura bra-tu-ka, 'ma-wa?' dancing sound hearing, one person servant calling, 'what-is?' music siku-bi. 'Ap-no ลีกลี ži – WŽ holom-ä ă-pu-ā saying asked. 'Your-Honour-of your-brother arriving-for your-father-by tik-pu bhoj mu-nu,' chākara-ā me lu-du-yo, mom-pu u-chili bru-chu-ka feast made,' servant-ly so said-also, him-of his-anger arising kim-ghobu mā unga-na. Mam-po pu pākhā lana-chuk mam binti house-into not went. His father outside coming him entreaty u-pu jawāph-bi, 'semiā, teni barkha-bi mu-tu. Mam-ā ũ-tahal made. Him-by his-father answer-gave, 'lo, these years-in your-service mu-ngatā. Hiyo-yo ā-bachan mā-gap-tu-na. Maī-yo angu o-ngasi-ham doing-am. Ever-even thy-word not-transgressed. Still Imy-friends kāī moi mu-nu tik-pu bheda-po u-chu mā be-nga-na. with merry to-make one sheep-of its-young-one not garest-to-me. Besyā-ham-kāī musa sampati juk-pu tum ā-chu holom-ā bhoj Harlots-with living property eating this thy-son coming-on feast Meyo u-pu-ā 'ye chu, anu ludu, sadhai ang kai thou-madest.' But his-father-by said, 'O son, you always me with ā-molā. O-po mā go tum jharā āp-pong. Ing-ki-ā moja musa. you-are. Me-of what is this all yours. Us-by merriment making harkha-bhoj muktim khānohe chhuk-ta. Māhāk? āsta. tam ā-wa joy-feast to-make proper will-be. Why? saying, thus wour-brother mitchum gom, lichum; chāmum gom, don-po.' dead was, lived; lost tras. was-found.

VĀYU.

According to Hodgson the Vāyus, who are vulgarly called Hāyus, inhabit the slopes of the central region of the Himalaya in Nepal. They are found in small villages scattered on both sides of the river Kosi, from the great valley of Nepal proper to that point where the Kosi turns southwards to issue into the plains. Their number in Nepal cannot be ascertained, but is said to be small and not to exceed a few thousands. At the last Census of 1901 some few speakers of Vāyu were returned from districts outside Nepal, viz.:

Assam, Lakhimpur .			•			•	•			• ,	90
Bengal Presidency, Darjeeling	•	•	•	٠	•	•	•	•	•	•	24
								To	TAL		114

The Vayus of Lakhimpur were probably either serving in our Indian Army, or were employed on tea-gardens.

Hodgson describes the Vāyus as being in an exceedingly depressed condition, probably passing to gradual extinction. There does not appear to be any close connexion between the different villages. Each village has a headman, whom they call mājhua. This name recalls the word manjhi, which is used in the same way among the Santāls.

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, —On the Váyu tribe of the Central Himálaya. Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. xxvii, 1858, pp. 443 and ff. Reprinted in Miscellaneous Essays, Vol. i, London 1880, pp. 393 and ff.

HUNTER, W. W., —A Comparative Dictionary of the Languages of India and High Asia. London 1868.

Hodgson's Essays contain a full grammatical analysis of Vayu with a good specimen of the language. The remarks which follow are entirely based on Hodgson's work, to which the student is referred for more detailed information. I have also reproduced Hodgson's specimen with the addition of an interlinear translation.

Vāyu is a typical language of the complex pronominalized class, though the conjugational system is less complicated than in the case of Bāhing.

Pronunciation.—The consonant kh has a peculiar sound. Hodgson describes it as 'verging upon a vague th or hard h, or Sanskrit ksh.' Thus, khis-to, rub. According to the same authority 'kh is hard Arabic, without the least vagueness, as in khwas-to, to tighten.'

E and i are commonly interchanged; thus, ning-la and neng-la, congeal. O and are said to be interchangeable in the same way.

Old final consonants are often slurred, and the word is then pronounced in the abrupt tone; thus, top-ta, struck, but to'-vi, striking; mēk', eye; cho'-mi, small. The abrupt tone has been indicated by means of the sign 'after the vowel or the consonant.

Some words are pronounced in what Hodgson calls the pausing tone; thus, z, this;

vāyu. 388

Concurrent consonants are changed in various ways. Thus k or k' often becomes ng before m and n, as in thing-ne, shut ye; $d\bar{n}ng$ -ne-m and dak-ne-m, you desired; from thik, shut; dak', desire, respectively. K moreover often becomes p after labials and t after dentals; thus phi-ki- $k\bar{n}ng$ -mi, we came; $d\bar{n}m$ -pi- $k\bar{n}ng$ -mi, we were full; ho-ti- $k\bar{n}ng$ -mi, we talked, from $ph\bar{n}$, come; dam, be full; hot', talk, respectively. There are, however, many exceptions, at least in the case of dentals preceding the k, when the change only takes place if the dental is dropped. Compare hot'-kok-mi, we talk. In dam-pop-mi, we are full, the suffix kok has been changed to pop under the influence of the preceding m.

A final t is often changed to s; thus, si-s-chyang, an instrument to kill with; si-s-chhok-mi, we two kill him; si-s-to, kill him; si-s-sung, kill me, etc., from the base sit, kill. Before m a t is apparently sometimes changed to n; thus, hon-mi, talked, from hot, talk. Similarly p becomes m before n; thus tom-ne, strike ye, from the base top, to strike.

Ng apparently becomes m after labials, and, sometimes, n after t; thus dam-mu-m, I am full, si-n-mi, I kill him, from dam, to be full; sit, to kill, respectively. In these instances mu and n, respectively, are derived from the pronominal suffix ngo, ng.

Such changes play a great rôle in the conjugation of verbs.

Suffixes and prefixes.—Several suffixes and prefixes are used in the formation of words. The prefixes cannot, in most cases, be analysed. The prefix \bar{u} in \bar{u} - $p\bar{u}$, father; \bar{u} - $m\bar{\imath}$, mother, is originally a demonstrative pronoun. It has, however, become an inseparable part of the word. The meaning of many other prefixes cannot now be ascertained; thus, cho-lo, Tibetan zla-ba, moon; b-li-(-ning), Tibetan bzhi, four, etc.

A common suffix is lung, which denotes place; thus, im-lung, sleeping room, from im, to sleep. The suffix sing is similarly added to verbal bases in order to form compounds with the meaning of time for an action; thus, im-sing, bed time.

The suffix chyāng denotes the instrument; thus, top-chyāng, a beating instrument, a hammer; ruk-chyāng, a ploughing instrument, a plough.

Nouns of agency are formed by adding the suffix vi; thus, to'-vi, a hammer; $p\bar{o}-vi$, a maker; cheli-tun-vi, a goatherd. The suffix vo is sometimes used in a similar way; thus, daksa-vo, a covetous man; livo-vo, a bow-man, an archer. A corresponding feminine is formed by adding the suffix mi; thus, daksa-mi, a covetous woman. The same suffix is also used to form neuter nouns; thus, heldung-mi, the yellow thing, gold; khak-chhing-mi, the black thing, iron; dāvang-mi, the white thing, silver. It is connected with the suffix mu which is used in order to form adjectives and genitives, especially before neuter nouns; thus, sing-mu, wooden; jājā-mu, right; mādum-mu, central, etc. Mi and mu are connected with the demonstrative pronoun mi, that, and the verb substantive mi, m, which is used as an assertive particle after verbs.

A suffix so occurs in words such as ram-sa, fear; jung-sa, fever; suk'-sa, hunger; dak-sa, wish; ti-dak-sa, water-wish, thirst, etc. It apparently forms abstract nouns from verbal bases.

Nouns.—There is no grammatical gender. The natural gender is distinguished by using different words or by adding suffixes such as wo and cho, male; mi, female. Thus, kiki, grandfather; pipi, grandmother: locho (or perhaps loncho), man; mescho, woman: tā-wo, boy; tā-mi, girl: bang-cho, a young man; bang-mi, a young woman:

bing-cho, a handsome man; bing-mi, a handsome woman. Mes-cho, woman, shows that cho cannot be a simple male suffix, and the male and female suffixes are sometimes added after cho; thus, bang-cho-wo, a mature man; bang-cho-mi, a mature woman.

Number.—There are three numbers, the singular, the dual, and the plural. Number is not separately indicated if it can be inferred from the context. In other cases numerals or the suffix $kh\bar{a}ta$, which probably means 'many,' are added; thus, $n\bar{a}yung\ got$,' two hands; $l\bar{o}cho-kh\bar{a}ta$, men.

Case.—The cases of the subject and the object are not indicated by means of any suffix. They are sufficiently marked in the verb. The subject of transitive verbs is, however, put in the case of the agent or the instrumental in such forms as are common to the active and the passive. Compare the remarks under the head of verbs, below.

The genitive is commonly expressed by putting the governed before the governing noun without adding any suffix; thus, $l\tilde{o}cho\ got$, the man's hand; $chh\bar{a}ju\ m\bar{a}dum-b\bar{e}$, hill middle-in, in the mid-ascent of the hill. If there is no qualified noun the suffix mu or m is added; thus, $l\tilde{o}cho-mu$, the man's. The same is also sometimes the case before a qualified noun; thus $mulung-mu\ m\bar{a}dum-b\bar{e}$, in the middle of the village. The suffix m is very commonly added after suffixes of number and in some pronouns; thus, $l\tilde{o}cho\ nak-pu-m$ of two men; $l\tilde{o}cho\ kh\bar{a}ta-m$, men's.

The suffix of the ablative is *khen*, that of the instrumental $h\bar{a}$, and those of the locative $b\bar{e}$, $h\bar{e}$, and \bar{e} ; thus, sing-khen, from the wood; $l\bar{o}cho-h\bar{a}$, by a man; $l\bar{o}cho-b\bar{e}$, in a man; $wan-h\bar{e}$, in the top; $kem-\bar{e}$, in the house.

Other relations are indicated by adding postpositions such as nung, with; bong, up to, so far as; rek, towards, and so forth.

Adjectives.—Most words used as adjectives are formed from verbal bases, and they are also used as participles; thus, met'-vi, dying; me'-ta, dead; jā-tāng, entable, wholesome, etc. When adjectives are used as nouns, they are often qualified by suffixes denoting the gender; thus, suksa-wo, the hungry man; suksa-mi, the hungry woman. The suffix mu is similarly used to denote irrational beings; thus, noh'-ka-mu, the good one.

Comparison is effected by putting the compared noun in the ablative; thus, wathi-m khen cho'-mi, him from small, smaller than he; inung-khāta khen cho'-mi, these from small, smallest among these; sabim khen khimta, all from cold, coldest.

Numerals. - The first four numerals have separate forms for the masculine, the feminine, and the irrational gender. Compare the table which follows:—

	Masculine.		Masculine,	Feminine.	Irrational.		
One	•		kom-pu, kwong-pu	kno-mi, kwong-mi	ko·lu		
Two .			nāk-pu	nīng-mi	nā-yung		
Three			chłuk-pu	chhung-mi	chhu-yung		
Four .	•	•	blik-pu	blig-mi	bli-ning		

There are further separate forms for the numerals 'five' and 'six'; thus, ū-ning, five; chhu-ning, six. Chhu-ning seems to be a compound and to mean 'three times two.' The final ning is another form of nāyung, two. Uning, five, probably has a similar origin.

they two, sent me; ping-ngo-ne-m, you send me; ping-ngo-me-m, they send me; ping-sung-ne-m, you sent me; ping-sung-me-m, they sent me, etc.

Similarly are formed the present and past tenses of most transitive verbs.

It has already been remarked that the verbs $j\bar{a}$, eat; $t\bar{a}$, put; and $p\bar{a}$, do, change their \bar{a} to o in the passive. Compare the table which follows:—

	Active.		Passive.			
Present.	Past.	Present	Past			
Sing. 1 tī-ng-mi	ร์รี-บัพ-พรู-พะรั	to-ngo-m	to-sung-mi			
2	tā-ku-m	fo-mi	to-mi			
3 .	t5-ku-m	to-mi				
Dual - 1 excl tā-chhok-mi	tā-chkong-mi	to-chhck-mi	to-chhong-mi			
l incl tā-chhik-mi	tā-chhing-mi	to-chhiù-mi	to-chhing-mi			
2	tā-chhe-m	to-chhik-mi	to-chke-m			
3	tū-ko-ekko-m	to-chhik-mi				
ur. lexel tā-kok-mi	tā-ki-kõng-mi	tr-kok-mi	to-ki-köng-mi			
l incl tā-ke-m	tā-ki-keng-mi	to-ke-m	to-ki-keng mi			
2	tā-ne-m	to-mo-ss	to-ne-m			
3	tā-ko-me-m	to-me-m				

The base $n\bar{o}$, to be, is inflected like $ph\bar{i}$, to come. The second person singular is, however, $n\bar{o}$ -nu-m, art; and the third person $n\bar{o}$ -mi or $n\bar{o}$ -m, is.

The base $l\bar{a}$, to go, has the form $l\bar{a}'la$ in the second and third persons singular; thus, $l\bar{a}$ -ngo-m, I go; $l\bar{a}'$ -sung-mi, I went; $l\bar{a}'la$ -m, goest, goes, wentest, went.

Imperative.—The imperative is not a finite tense denoting that something takes place. It is accordingly not followed by the copula mi or m. In other respects it is identical with the past; thus, phī, come; phī-chhe, come you two; phī-ne, come ye; im-che, sleep; im-nā-chhe, sleep you two; im-chi-ne, sleep ye; hā-to, give him; hā-to-chhe, give to them two; hā-chhe, give you two; hā-sung, give me; hā-chhong, give us two; hā-ki-kong, give us; hā-sung-chhe, give me you two, and so forth.

The negative imperative is formed by prefixing thā to the present of transitives and to the past of intransitives; thus, thā phī-chhe, don't come you two; thā hō-ne, don't talk; thā hā-chhok, don't give to us two, etc. There are, however, many exceptions to this latter rule; thus, thā hā-sung-ne, do not ye give to me.

The suffix mi, m is not only omitted in the imperative, but also in other forms which do not state that an action really takes place; thus, phi-ngo-nam, come-I-if, if vol. III, PART I.

I come; phī-sa, if he comes; phī-sung-phen, if I came; phī-ngo-yu, O that I might come, etc.

Verbal nouns and participles.—The base alone is used as a verbal noun; thus phit'-hē, coming-in, coming: phit'-nung, coming-with, when coming; phit'-khen, coming-from, after having come; phit'-sing-hē, coming-time-at, when coming. The instrumental of the reduplicated base is often used as a kind of conjunctive participle; thus, phit'-phit'-hā, having come. An infinitive of purpose is formed by adding mung; thus, phit'-mung, in order to come. This form is also used as a kind of relative participle; thus, phit'-mung lom, a way to go on.

The common suffixes of relative participles are vi, denoting the agent, ta, forming a kind of past participle passive, and $t\bar{a}ng$ which is added in order to form a future participle passive; thus, $h\bar{a}$ -vi, who gives; $h\bar{a}$ -ta, given; $h\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{a}ng$, what will be given, fit to be given.

Causals.—Causals are formed by hardening a soft initial or else by suffixing *ping* to the base. Thus, *buk*', wake; *puk*', awaken: *duk*', move along; *thuk-to*, move it: *bok*, to be born; *phok* and *bok-ping*, beget.

Negative particle.—The negative particle is a prefixed $m\bar{a}$; thus, $m\bar{a}$ $ph\bar{i}$ -sungmi, I did not come.

For further details the student is referred to Hodgson's grammar and to the specimen which follows, which has been reprinted from Hodgson's work. A list of words will be found on pp. 409 and ff.

[No. 36.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

VĀYU.

(B. H. Hodgson, 1857.)

	g min	_	-		_		_	nomi.		
_								is.		Kkas
Hāyu	it-ke-m	. U	ng-ki	dāvo-	be	Vāyu	is-cl	ni-ke-m.	Gō	jek-ta
Hāyu	call-us	. (Our	languag	je-in	Vāyu	call-o	urself-we	·. I	old
dum-su	ng-mi.	E	Hāthā-bo:	ng	dum-	sung-mi	g-			se-ng-mi.
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khakch	hino-nuc	ւհիսյու-«	chun-vi-l	khāta	pögu-h	a ha-	ta si	71K	pa-cni-i	ok-mi.
	8 1	oldiers	-		Rāja-b	y gire	en fi	eld cu	ltivate-fe	77-u s-uce.
Ano	kō	mā	nom.	Ang	tā-w	o G	ajrā j	Thâra	nung	or-us-we.
Mu	land	not	i 8.	My	80n	G_{ϵ}	ajrā j	Thipa	with	is.
Gon-hā	kön	he r	aknhe	inang-	munang	wath	i yeng	kum.	Wathim	nārung
Thee-bu	me-ti	ime to	po-times	7	iere	him		uw.	His	form
min-hā	hlek-t	ann.	Wathin	chho	le	pō-kum	. Hon	ko ā	thum	rāmi.
thee-hu	nortr	aved.	His	body	also	made.	At-f	iret his	heart	feared.
Wantan	_hā	thum	hã-กา	ing I	hōn-pin	g-kum.	An	g di	ivo	lit'nung
Cantain	-11a 1-hv	heart	oivi	ng di	gree-ma	de-him.	31	y lang	<i>juage</i>	teaching
Llining	obāl		hunsit	khen	inh	e g	ŭ gö	n-hā	mut-pi	ng-kum.
bitting	encon f	he i	andina Malina	from	her	e m	e th	ee-by	to-stay-	causedst.
	ah	inomosi	b of	hamchen	n	Gön	si	en-che.	Ţ	Ing-jitā
Davo	ch	eressi Tinzinzar	de de	ifficult-i	· .	Thou	knowest	for-thys	elf. T	hy-asked
Langua	ye - Li	obi g	it_num	Ano	tbu	ım-be	ithaii	nōmi,	gön-hā	wälige
davo	g-na	tana	ht-thee	Hu	hed	ert-in	hope	is	thee-by	800n
question	ine-vy		Anorbi	thök	n Kös	bli	ngmu	homb	a	imba
12.6-1	nng-ngo nng-ngo	m. all-he	Our	tribe	Kös	i r	iver	that-side	e-on th	is-side-on
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Go-knar	iza fa	awa. Aishman	ricts-in	nit tino	, ,	ot .	are-10	e. A	Tüswär	Bötia
	•	awal-be		mut-vi		e-m.	Awal-		amsa-hā	gāng
Denwar Denwar	: · fever			eitting				of		river
			kok-mi.	•				ghād		chokphi
khēva	_	2011- 21:1-1			ation	-	doing			herbs
near	MOS III, PART		~~.	Q 20000				•	_	3 m 2
TUL		· -								

setung iō-vi kem mã pō-vi thōko Kusūnda Chepang bāhamu fruits eating house notmaking tribes $Kusar{u}nda$ Chēpāng like chhāju puchhi-be mus-chi-kok-mi. $m\bar{a}$ Ang-ki-mu $_{
m kem}$ nōmi; hills summits-on not sit-we. Us-of house28; vik le nomi: pāngamu vik nom, memha makai dōsi phāphai field also is; cultivablefield is. thus maize kodobuckwheat bōia lēvi rōwa. māsa sākha göhün lāru livi vik nom. rice millet cotton beans barley wheatmadder ripening field is. Ang-ki mülung kölu-be Hengong-wo bāha, Lapchā Limbu Our homes in-one-place Nēwārmanner. $Lapchar{a}$ Limbubāha māng jāhe. chhāju mādūm-be gadhà pāhe mus-chi-kok-mi. manner notchanging, hillsmiddle-in terraces making sit-we. Chhāiu püchhi-be boja $m\bar{a}$ li-che-m, jomsit-mu ming mische Hillstop-on rice not grows, grain-of nameany le $m\bar{a}$ nom. Hānung bong jomsit lichem, minung bong alsois. not How-much up-to grain grows, that up-to lat'-lat'-ha mus-chi-kok-mi. Ga-hā-khāta-hā ruk-lung-be ruk-kok-mi going sit-we. ploughing-country-in-Us-byplough-we duk-lung-be duk-kok-mi. Phalam-tu'-vi sing-chuk'-vi kōchōn-vi digging-country-in dig-we. Smiths carpenters potters ang-ki thok-be mā no-me-m. Kam-pā-chyāng bingcho-pā-chyāng our tribe-in not are. **Utensils** ornaments gyēti-m got-khen ing-chi-kok-mi. Ang-ki \mathbf{kem} ang-ki other-of göt-hā hand-from buy-we. Our houses our hand-with pā-chi-kok-mi. Ang-ki was-chyang ang-ki vik sē-tang rōwa-khen make-for-us-we. Our dress our fieldgatheredcotton-from rome-khāta-hā dūri chinching-ha jēwa pung-me-m. wives-by Vāyu-khāta dūri spinning clothes weave-they. khakchhing-puchhum-pō-vi (or -chup-vi) $V \bar{a} y u s$ $m\bar{a}$ nō-me-m. Mische-pā soldiers gyēti notare. Any-way namsang-mu other sēva. mā pō-me-m. Jēwa Hengong-wo smell-of göt-khen service not do.**Clothes** $N\bar{e}w\bar{a}rs$ hand-from rangai pō-me-m; lõncho-khāta dāwāng-mi (sic) jēwa. wās-chi-me-m; dye do; men whiteclothes wear; mes-cho-khāta rangau-pō-ta was-chi-mem. Ang-ki mu-lung ithijila women nō-mi. dyed wear. Our villages 8mall are. Näyung gōt kulup-hā bā kulup-khen chholup bong müphta T_{100} hands entire with half entire-from 8core up-to seated mādūm-be īt-hā dōk-hā ham-ta nō-me-m. Ang-ki kem chhālung hills here sing-hā there scattered · are. Our houses rough timber-from pō-ta. di-ha wamta hūng-lung-kō-hā rō-ta khisti-hā cane-with sup-ta (1) chalk(?)-with ninetonad

gēge-gēge pā-chi-mem. Kem bhitari nāyung kuna no-chhik-mi. kölu House separately made-are. within teno rooms are. one kõlu khō'-lung. Tā-wo-khāta tā-mi-khāta gēge-ta mā sleeping-room onecooking-room. Boys girls separate-place not hok-mi. Bangchodum-khen biak pa-chi-kok-mi. Nayung gūt kulup-hā Maturity-from marriage make-we. hands entire-with sleep. Twohā kulup-khen lē gōt kulup pēnku bong hā-hā-hā rome feet half entire-from hands allup-to rupees wives giving Pēnku phem māng won-ti-ke ing-chi-kok-mi. nam rome upu kem-be Money notif buy-our-we. pay can-we wife father house-in Mische pā-pā-hā pheng-kok-mi. lat'-lat'-hā kam mā pā-pā-hā me'-ta workdoing Anything going pay-we. not doing dead kō-be khum-pop-mi. Khōcho puk chēli bēli sing-tong mēchho earth-in bury-we. Foul swine aoat sheep buffaloes phōka bhālu jā-chi-kok-mi; gai $m\bar{a}$ iā-kok-mi: singwo-khūdu eat-we: CO108 bears monkeys not eat-we; bees-honey Sõve tung-chi-kok-mi, bukchha-le tung-kok-mi. արար chālung jā-kok-mi. eat-we. Beer drink-sce-our. milk eggs spirits-also drink-we. ching-ngak tung-kok-mi; ang-ki pō-ta bukchha Söve. gyēti-m made much drink-we: spirits Beer our others-of göt-khen ing-ta yang-ngak tung-chi-kok-mi. Ang-ki chho-be mā bought little drink-we. Our body-in hand-from not sas-chi-kok-mi. blek-chi-kok-mi: nökchhung mescho le toncho le. also bore-we. women tattoo-ourselves-we: ears men also. suna-le dak-kok-mi. chölvi bālung, Balung-khen mā Ang-ki gyēti other not wish-we. Our physician Exorcist-from any exorcist. Vāyu thōko-mu singtong suna-hā nom. brahman gyēti suna-le mā person any-by Vāyu tribe-of brāhman not is. other any bon-mi. mā Gvēti-m lom mā khok-chi-kok-mi. Ang-ki vik lama obey. Others-of not walk-we. Our lama not way field wat-kok-mi. met'-khen hā-khele mā Upo tawo-khata-ha chhing-ngak not abandon-sce. Father died-from sons-by ever much ling-me-m. Tāmi-khāta-hā mische-le pāpā-hā mā mā ling-me-m. yang-ngak doing get-they. Daughters-by anything little not not get-they. dēvi māihua nō-mi. Inung Imha-mu owah ang-ki wanikhen village-keadman disputes deciding Him Such our is. from sunā-le Ang-ki thoko gyēti-m göt-be lās-ta roogi $m\bar{a}$ nom. yang-ta making anyone is. Our tribe others-of hand-in gone not decreased thoko nati tolgong bong vang-mi. tribe teoo handfuls till decreased-is.

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

My name is Pāchya. I am a Vāyu. The Khas tribe call us Hāyu, but in our own tongue we call ourselves Vāyu. I am an old man. I do not know how old I am, but I am more than sixty years old. We cultivate the land assigned by the Rāja to the soldiers of the Dhankuta regiment. I have no land of my own. My son is in the service of Gajrāj Thāpa. You have seen him here several times, and drawn his portrait, and measured him. At first he was alarmed, but the captain reassured him, and induced him to consent. You have kept me here four months that I might teach you my language. Our language is very difficult, you must judge for yourself. I can only answer your questions. I hope that you will soon let me go.

Our tribe live on both sides of the Kosi, from the Valley of Nepal to the Tambakosi. We do not live in the fever districts, as do the Kuswars, the Botias, and the Dēnwārs. We do not live near the river for fear of the fever. We do not, neither, live on the hill summits like the Kusunda and Chēpāng tribes, who never cultivate but live on wild herbs and fruits, and never build houses. We have houses, and cultivate the soil, growing maize, kodo, buckwheat, rice, millet, cotton, beans, barley, wheat, madder. We have fixed homes like the Newars, and are not migratory like the Lepchas and Limbus. We occupy the central parts of the hill slopes, which we cut into terraces. Rice will not grow on the tops, nor any description of grain. We go up as high as grain will grow. We use the plough where it is possible. In other places we use the spade. We have no smiths, carpenters, or potters. We buy utensils and ornaments from others. We build our own houses, and our dress is made of home-grown cotton which our wives spin and weave. No Vayus are soldiers, and we never take menial service. The Newars dye our clothes. The men use white clothes, but the women wear dyed clothes. Our villages are small, usually fifteen to twenty houses, scattered here and there along the hill-sides. Our houses are made of rough timber, interlaced with canes, plastered with chalk, and thatched with straw. There are two rooms in the house. one for sleeping and another for cooking. There is no general dormitory for the grown up boys and girls of the village. We marry at maturity. We buy our wives at a cost of from fifteen to twenty rupees. If we have no money, we earn her by working in her father's house. We bury our dead without any ceremony. We eat fowls, swine, goats, sheep, and buffaloes, but not cows, bears, or monkeys. We also eat honey, milk and eggs. We drink beer and spirits. The beer is home-brewed, and we drink much of it. We must buy the spirits from others, and we therefore do not drink much of it. We do not tattoo our bodies, but we bore our ears, the men as well as the women. We have no other priest than the exorcist. He is also our physician. None of the Vayu tribe follow the brahmans or lamas, and we do not adopt foreign customs. We never abandon our fields. When the father dies, the sons equally inherit him, the daughters do not inherit. Our village headman decides our disputes. We never appeal from him. Our tribe has been subjugated by others, and is reduced to very inconsiderable numbers.

OTHER NEPAL DIALECTS.

Hodgson has published vocabularies of several more Nepal dialects. Some of them such as Dahi, Dēnwār, Kuswār, Pākhyā and Thāru are Aryan forms of speech and do not interest us in this connexion. Others are of the same kind as Vāyu, and it will be of interest to collect such scraps of information about their grammar as can be gathered from Hodgson's vocabularies. Some short notes about the dialects of the Bhrāmus, the Chēpāngs, the Kusūndas, and the Thāksyas therefore follow. They are entirely based on the materials published by Hodgson.

The Chepang and Kusunda tribes live in the central region of Nepal, to the west of the Vayus. Their dialects are complex, pronominalized, forms of speech. The same is the case with the language of the Bhramu tribe, who dwell in the Nepal Terai. With regard to the remaining dialect, that of the Thaksya tribe, I am unable to state whether it is a pronominalized form of speech or not.

The vocabulary of these dialects is relatively free from Aryan loan-words, as will be seen from the short comparative vocabulary which follows:—

	Chēpāng.	Kusünds.	Bhrāmu.	Thikeya.
One	ขู้สี-sko	goi-sīng	dē	di
Two	nhi-sho	g kšn ga	79 i	ngi
Three	sum-zho	džka	гюдт	som ·
Four	plōi-zho	pinjāng	bi	bla
Five	pāma-sho	pangangjāng	bāngā	ngš
Six	krāk-sko			tu
Seven	shāpā sho			nges
Eight	prap-ike			bhrs
Vine	tales also.			ku
Pees:	ggib-sko			chyu
- Curacity				ngiyu
Tity				п даг уч
Inndred	Property (new property construction for the construction of the co			bhra

	Chepang.	Kusūnds.	Bhrāmu.	Thāksys.
I	ngā	chi	nġā	ghyāng
Thou	nāng	nu ·	nāng	nga
Who ?		nātat	hai	iā
What?		nātāng .		khajupero
Bird	พลี	kotau	jyāling	nom'ya
Blood	<i>फहर, फ</i> रे	#yū	chīwi	ka
Child		gitasē, chyāchi		ālōpichām
Cow	mō-syā	nokmwa	syā	mhē
Ďa y	nyî	dina	dinā	sar
Dog	kwi	. agai	akyā	nāga
Ear	nê, nō	chyāu	kānā	nha
Egg	<i>เ</i> ขลี-ใะขิท	groā	hom	chhyārkyaphūm
Eye	mai, mik	chining	mik	mi
Fire	mē, mī	jā	māi	mhē
Fish	nyā, ngā	ngāsa	nāngā	trangngā
Foot	la	chān	นิทธเห็	malethin
Goat	mēsyā, mi chā	mījha	michha	rāmo
Hair	mës	. gyaii	syām	chham
Hand	būt-t	gips	bhit	yāyātkin
Head	tā, tōlong	chipi	kāpā	ta
Hog	Pya (k)	hi, yāsa	pakeyā	tii

	Chēping.	Kusinda.	Bhri zz.	7bāksya.
Horn	ring	sping jing	Exy3	73
House	kyira, tim	blai	nars	ghin
Moon	lahe, lame	jun	chalowani	lāimgā
Mountain	riās	parbat		yeladhyu
Month	metong	birgyād	anīm	eung
Name	myēng	giji	min	าหล่าง
Night	yā	inggai		174 M 74
Boad	lyām	won	นิทเทเรี	ghyam
Sky	*äräg	lagai		990 25
Smoke	I a	tou	pāiçs	pudhi
Stone	bāng		kāng-bā	
Sur	nyām	ing	uni	ghẳngi, saugkini
Tiger	jā-(kela)	dājs kāuli	bimang	nā
Tooth	arêk .	toho	รเซลิ	gyo
Tree	sing (-tak)		simma	ghyung
Water	и	täng	āvā	kya
Good	pito	waiyabi	gādo	āslā
Bad	pilo	ka-ingbarai	madē	na doba
Fer	dy&ug-to	isinka	kalāb	cheri
Near	lokto	ista	kanyāk	nyese
Tall		phiyong	alkok	bauchhēba

	Chēpārg.	Kūsunda.	Bhrāmu.	Tháksya.
Short		poktok	anyak .	putulii
Eat	jēche, jhīsa	ām	chā	thila
Drink	tūmche, tumsa	tāng qonong	syāngā	pi-u
Sleep	emche, yemsa	iptu	nāwa	nhuko
Come		agga	thāyā	khau
Go		dā	yēngā	hero
Run	kī, kīsa	gorgowōto	gēgwēya	nginahero
Give	būi	āi	pyū	pino
Strike		pungbōgo	mōtō	tāu, thopāts
Kill		puwāgo	sālo, aprīto	thagothāpāti

CHEPANG.

The Chepangs live in the dense forests of the central region of Nepal, to the west of the great valley.

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—On Tibeto-Burman Languages. Ibidem, Vol. x, 1878, pp. 210 and ff. Contains vocabularies, Chepang, etc.

-Comparative Grammar of the Languages of Further India: a fragment. And other Essays. London 1881. Contains comparative vocabularies, Chepang, etc.

Chepang is a dialect of the complex, pronominalized type. We are only unsatisfactorily informed about its grammatical features. Hodgsen was of opinion that the dialect was likely to disappear ere long. I do not know in how far this forecast has been verified.

Nouns.—The natural gender is distinguished by using different words or by means of qualifying additions; thus, $p\bar{a}$, father; $m\bar{a}$, mother: $p\bar{u}rsi$, man; $m\bar{s}r\bar{u}$, woman: to.

grandfather; aie, grandmother: chō, boy; chō-riāng, girl: hou, brother; hou-dhiāng, sister: palam, husband; malam, wife: you-shyā, bull; mō-shyā, cow.

We do not know anything about the existence of separate dual and plural suffixes. Mai in wū-mai, they, and lum in ngī-lum, we, are perhaps plural suffixes.

The genitive can apparently be formed by prefixing the governed to the governing word without any suffix; thus, wā-kūm, bird's egg, egg. The suffix ku means 'of,' and is probably used when the governing word is understood.

Other cases are indicated by adding postpositions. Such are sai, to; i, with, from; hang, in, on.

Numerals.—The first ten numerals are:—

yā-zho, yā-zyo, one.
nhi-zho, nhi-zyo, two.
sum-zho, sum-zyo, three.
plōi-zho, plōi-zyo, four.
pūma-zho, pūma-zyo, five.

krūk-zho, krūk-zyo, six.
chānā-zho, chānā-zyo, seven.
prap-zho, prap-zyo, eight.
taku-zho, taku-zyo, nine.
gyīb-zho, gyib-zyo, ten.

Pronouns.—The following are the personal pronouns:—

 $ng\bar{a}$, I. $n\bar{a}ng$, thou. \bar{u} , he, she, it. $ng\bar{a}$ -ku, my. $n\bar{a}ng$ -ku, thy. \bar{u} -ku, his, her, its. $ng\bar{i}$ -lum, we.ning-lum, you. $u\bar{o}$ -mai, they. $ng\bar{i}$ -ku, our.ning-ku, your. \bar{u} -mai-ku, their.

Verbs.—We know almost nothing about the conjugation of verbs. Forms such as bū-i, give; le-i, take, are probably imperatives. The same is perhaps the case with forms ending in che and s-che; thus, jē-che, eat; tum-che, drink; mū-s-che, sit down; nhō-s-che, speak.

Hodgson supposed the forms ending in sa to be verbal nouns; thus, jhī-sa, to eat; tum-sa, to drink; mu-sa, to sit down. It is however also possible that they are relative participles or nouns of agency; compare rap-sa, tailor; naikyou-sa, weaver, and so on.

Certain verbal forms end in ang; thus, bajhinang, to request. Hodgson supposed that they were participles. They can also be verbal nouns; compare, youngsang, tasting; jensatang, murder; latilang, robbery; mharlang, love, and so on.

The negative participle is apparently a suffixed lo; thus, pito, good; pi-lo, bad; nim-to, sweet; nim-lo, sour; bainang-lo, to refuse. Compare the negative suffix lo in some Kuki Chin dialects.

KUSUNDA.

The Kusunda live in the same district as the Chepangs, viz., in the jungles of the central region of Nepal, close to the plains, to the westward of the great valley. Hodgson in 1848 predicted the extinction of the tribe within a few generations, and it can only be very insignificant.

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EASTERN PRONOMINALIZED LANGUAGES.

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vocabularies, Kusunda, etc.

-Comparative Grammar of the Languages of Further India; a fragment. And other Essays. London 1881. Contains vocabularies, Kusunda, etc.

Hodgson classed Kusunda as a dialect of the complex pronominalized type. short remarks which follow are based on the vocabulary published by him.

Nouns.—Gender is distinguished by using different terms or by adding words with the meaning 'male,' 'female,' respectively. Thus, $p\bar{a}i$, father; $m\bar{a}i$, mother: $talas\bar{a}i$, boy; taksē, girl: dūwōi, husband; ningdai myāhoa, wife; mih'ya dawāi, man; ningdai, woman; gyā kotau, male bird; gimi kotau, female bird: āgai gyā, dog; āgai gimi, bitch, and so on.

We do not know anything about the existence of separate dual and plural suffixes.

Cases are formed by adding postpositions. Such are nata igin, of; tāi, in; lai, to; jāng jai, from; āi, by; tāngche, with; kāuthāi, without, and so on.

Numerals.—The first five numerals are goi-sang, one; ghinga, two; daha, three; pin-jang, four; pangang-jang, five. The final sang, jang, in some of these forms is probably a generic particle.

Pronouns.—The following are the personal pronouns:—

chi, I. chiyi, my. tok'-jhinga, we two. tok-jhingayī, ours two. chō-baki, we.

nu, thou. noki-baki, togarāki; you. gida-baki, their. cho-baki-yida, toki-baki-mida, ours. | noki-baki-yida, yours.

gida, he, she, it. nīyī, thy.

nōk'-jhinga, you two.

nok-jhingayī, yours two.

gida-jhingayī, theirs two. gida-baki-yida, theirs.

The suffix jhinga in the dual forms is probably another form of ghinga, two.

Some other forms are given in another place in Hodgson's vocabulary; thus, ki, I: tangda, me; gido-dāni, him; tok-jhingai, by us two; tok-khāgyai, by us; tokkhādai, us; nok-khag, you, and so on.

Demonstrative pronouns are ta and tāi, this; issi and it, that.

Interrogative and indefinite pronouns are nātat, who? nātāng, what? nataim'ya hak, anyone; nataum'ya hāgit, anything.

Verbs.-Hodgson gives the following table of the present tense active and passive of pungbogo, strike,-

ki pomatanha-u, I beat. na pomatawa, thou beatest. gida pomutava, he beats. tok-jhingai pomatanhai, we two beat. nok-jhinga pomatawa, you two beat. gida-jhinga pomatawa, they two beat. tok-khāqyai pomatanhai, we beat. nok-khag pomatawa, you beat. gidaki poma'awa, they beat.

tangda pungmatabahini, I am beaten.

gidodāni gidai pungmataba, he is beaten. tok-jhigai pomatabai, we two are beaten.

gida-jhinga gi pungmataba, they two are beaten. tokkhādai pomatabai, we are beaten.

gidakhai gi pungmataba, they are beaten.

The base alone is apparently used as an imperative; thus, ām, eat; dā, go; āi, mā, take. Suffixes such as o, u, and a can apparently be added; thus, gorgowōto, run; pungbūgo, strike; puwāgo, kill; mangbo, hear; auō, do; iptu, sleep; agga, come; pwāktoba, speak, and so on.

Negative imperatives are anibil, do not; anoktabin, do not speak; abāgānebin, be silent. They are apparently formed by prefixing a and suffixing bill or bin. A prefixed negative ā seems to occur in āyewā, no.

BHRAMU.

The Bhrāmus are one of the tribes of the Nepal Tarai. At the last Census of 1901, 15 speakers of the Bhrāmu dialect were returned from Assam.

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Hodgson stated that Bhramu is a dialect of the complex pronominalized type. The materials published by him are still the only foundation of our knowledge of the dialect. They are not sufficient for more than drawing attention to some few facts.

Nouns and adjectives are often preceded by a prefix a; thus, a-kyā, dog; a-nap, ant; a-nām, mouth; a-mai, mother; a-bo, white; a-lhok, long; a-nyak, short; a-lham, large, and so on. This a is probably a demonstrative pronoun.

We have no information about the way in which the natural genders are distinguished. Babāi is 'father' and a-mai, mother, and these words are probably used in order to denote the sex, as is the case in connected dialects.

There are apparently two numbers, the singular and the plural. The final $d\vec{u}$ in $\hbar \vec{u} - d\vec{u}$, they, is probably a plural suffix.

Cases are formed by adding postpositions such as $k\bar{u}$, of; $t\bar{u}$, to; $g\bar{a}ng$, $j\bar{a}ng$, from; $d\bar{s}$, in; $th\bar{a}ck\bar{s}$, in, on; $g\bar{a}\bar{s}$, on, upon; chos, with.

The first five numerals are $d\bar{e}$, one; si, two; $sic\bar{o}m$, three; bi, four; $b\bar{a}$ - $ng\bar{a}$, five.

The following are the personal pronouns:—

ngã, I.	nang, thou.	ä, he, she, it.
ngā-kū, my.	nang-ku, thy.	ū-kū, his, her, its.
nī, we.	nang, you.	hada, they.
nī-kū, our.	näng-kü, your.	ūn-kū, their.

The base \$\vec{u}\$, \$\vec{k}\vec{u}\$, is also used as a remote demonstrative; thus, \$\vec{k}\vec{u}di\$, there. The corresponding nearer demonstrative is apparently \$\vec{k}\vec{i}\$; thus, \$\vec{k}\vec{u}di\$, here.

Interrogative and indefinite pronouns are has, who? ku-wa, how much? sung, somebody; hang, something.

We do not know much about the conjugation of verbs. The base alone, without any suffix, is apparently used as a present; thus, mo and lik, it is, yes; mā-mi and a-lik, it is not, no.

The base alone, or with one of the suffixes ā and o or ū, is used as an imperative; thus, chā, eat; so, get up; syō, walk; syāngā, drink; thāyā, come; yēngā, go; thāyo, take; sāto, kill; pyū, give, etc.

The negative participle is a prefixed $m\bar{a}$ or a, before imperatives a prefixed $m\bar{a}$; thus, mā-mi, not is, no; a-lik, not is, no; mā pē and mā khale, do not speak, be silent.

The vocabulary is, to a great extent, mixed with Aryan words.

THAKSYA.

Our information about the Thaksyas and their language is very unsatisfactory. I am unable to decide whether the dialect belongs to the pronominalized or to the nonpronominalized class.

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Noung.—Gender is distinguished by using different words or by adding suffixes such as gyā, dhō, rāgo, yese, male; mā, moma, mama, īso, female. Thus, ābo, father: āmā, mother: mrinthin, husband; mrinmhī, wife: pyung, man; mrin, woman: khēba, old man; khūgyu, old woman: mhē-yese, bull; mhē-mama, cow; rāmo-gyā, he goat: rāmo-mā, she-goat; mai rāgo, he-buffalo; mai moma, she buffalo: nom'ya dhō, male bird: nom'ya īso, female bird.

We do not know anything about the existence of separate dual and plural suffixes. Cases are formed by adding postpositions. Such are chaye, of; dhyūri, to; kyāche, from; kau, by; ngāyero, with; ārobhoja, without; hīsono, in.

Numerals.—The first numerals are:—

1 di.	6 tu.	20 ngiyu.
2 ngi.	7 nges.	30 sombu.
3 som.	8 bhre.	40 blibyu.
4 bla.	9 ku.	50 ngasyu.
5 ngā.	10 chyu.	100 bhra.

It will be seen that higher numbers are counted in tens.

Pronouns.—The following are the personal pronouns:-

```
ghyang, I.
                               nga, thou.
                                                              mhi, chana, he, she, it.
ghyang-ge, my, mine.
                               ngaye, thy, thine.
                                                              mhiye, his, her, its.
ghyang-si, we two.
                               ngi-si, you two.
                                                              mhi-si, they two.
ghyangsi-ye, our two.
                                                              mhi-si-ye, their two.
                               ngi-si-ye, your two.
ghyang-cha, we.
                                nga-cha, you.
                                                              mhi-cha, thev.
                                                             mhi-cha-ye, mni-ye-ke, their.
ghyang-cha-ye, our.
                              nga-cha-ye, your.
```

It will be seen that there are three numbers, the singular, the dual, and the plural. The table of the present tense of the verb tan, strike, reproduced below, contains another set of forms; thus, ngajai, by me, I; chyang-chai, by thee. It seems as if the forms of the first and second persons have been interchanged in one of the two tables.

Demonstrative pronouns are paang kyungpa (sic), this; cha and khapami, that.

Interrogative and indefinite pronouns are tā, who? khajupero, what? sabadhyangpa, anyone; khajāngpēmhi, anything.

Verbs.—Hodgson gives the following table of the present tense active and passive of the verb $t\bar{a}\bar{u}$, beat—

ngojai toba, I beat.
chyang-chai tobā, thou beatest.
the tobamu, he beats.
nginji tobakā, we two beat.
namāngi tobamu, you two heat.
thamangi tobamu, they two beat.
ngingichai tobamu, we beat.
nama-cha tobamu, you beat.
mhi-cha-ka tobamu, they beat.

nga-zir tobamu, I am beaten.

ngingi tobamu, we two are beaten.

ngiri, we are beaten.

Imperatives are *lhau*, do; *khau*, come; *reto*, wake; *hero*, go; *pino*, give; *lhila*, eat; *tūpa*, sit down, etc. Negative imperatives are formed by prefixing *tha*; thus, *tha lau*, do not; *tha tyātō*, do not speak.

The usual negative particle is apparently a prefixed \bar{a} ; thus, ai, no; $mki-\bar{a}-ky\bar{a}kop\bar{a}$, look-not-good, ugly. We also find forms such as na $\bar{a}sba$, not good, bad, with the Aryan na, not.

STANDARD WORDS AND PHRASES IN THE EASTERN

	nglish.	•			Dh	îmāl (Hodge	OB).		Thū	ni (I)	arjeeli	ng).		Simbu (Nep	al).		Yākhā ((Darjeeli	ng).	
l. One.	•		•		E.		•			Diware					Thik, or lop-thik	٠.		Ikko		•	
2. Two.	•		•	•	Ngē		•	•		Nis.					Nechhī		•	Hich-chi .	•	•	
S. Three	•				Süm	•	•	•		Tin.		•	•		Sūm-sī			Sum-ji .	•	•	
4. Four	•	•	•		Diā	•	•	•	•	Chăr		•			Lī-sī			Li-ji .			
5. Five	•	•	•		N≅.	•	•	•	•	Panch .		•	•		Nā-sī		٠	Ngā-ji		•	
6. Six .	•	•	•	•	Tū.	•	•		•	Chhan .			•	•	Tük-sī .			Tuk-ji	•		
7. Seven	•	•	•	\cdot	Nhii	•	•	•	•	Sāt.		•	•	•	Nū-sī			Nu-ji .			
8. Eight	•	•		•	Yè.	•	•	•	•	Āţh	•	•	•	•	Yechhi			Yech-chi			
9. Nine	•	•		\cdot	Kühā	•	•	•	•	Nau .	,	•		٠	Phāng-sī .	•		Phang-ji .			
0. Ten .	•	•	1	•	Tē.	•	•	•	٠	Das .		•	•		Thi-bong .	•		Ibong .			
l. Twenty	•	•		•	Bisa	•	•	•	•	Bis.	,	•	•	٠	Ni-bofig	•	\cdot	Hi-bong .		•	
.2. Fifty	•	•	•	•	•	•••	••••			Pachas .		•	•		Nā-gip	•		Hi-bong hich-	-chi ng	a ibon	ıg
8. Hundred	i .	•			Nā bisa	•	• '	•	•	Sahe .	-	•	•		Mānā thik, thi-bor thi kip.	ng kip,	or	Ichurup .	•		•
4. I .	•	•			Kā,	•	•	•	-	Gai .		•	•		Angā	•	\cdot	Kā.	•	•	•
5. Of me 6. Mine	•	•			Kang-ko		•	•	•	Gai-ko .		•	•		Angā-īn, ā	•	\cdot	Āgā-be ,	•,	•	
7. We .	•	•		- 1	Kang-ko	•	•	•		Gai-ko .	1	•	•	-	Angā-īn, ā- ,	•		Āgā .			•
7. We . 8. Of us	•	•			Kyēl	•	•	•		Ai-mi .		•	•	-	Ānī, ānīgē	•	-	Aning .	•	•	
9. Our.	•	•			King-ko		•	•	i	Mi-ko ang		•	•		Ānī-īn, ānīgīn .	•	-	Āningā-be	•	•	
9. Thou	•	•		-	King-ko	•	•	•	ĺ	Mi-ko ,		•	•	1	Āuī-īn, ānigīn .	•	•	Āningā .		•	•
l. Of thee	•	•			Nä . Näng-ko .	•	•	•		Ninko :		•	•		Kuenē	•	1	Ing-khi .	•	•	
2. Thine	•	•	_		Nang-ko		•	•	-	Nanko ma		•	•		Khenë-in, k'-	•	. :	Ingā .	•	•	•
s. You.	•	•			Nyal ,	•	•	•	-	Nanko .		•	•		Khenë-in, k'	•	ı	Ingā .	•	,	•
L Of you	•		·		Ning-ko .	•	•	•		Ning .	_•	•	•	1	Khenī	• ,	1	Ing-khi	• •	a	•
Your					ing-ko .		•	•		Ning-ko n	ring	•	•		Chenī-in	•		ingi .	• 1	•	•
Himaleye			44,				•	•	٠١,	Ning-ko.	•	•	•	. 1	Cheni-in	•	1	ings .		,	

Khamb	a (ver	anize.	;.		an ag	Hadge	oz į.		24	Li (Mapa	i).		· Vi	yu Holge	es .	:	English
Ibom .	•	•		Kwong			•	. Tik-	pr.	•			. Kela	3 •	•		l. One.
Ngicheki	•	•		Nikai	•	•	•	Sak-	pu .		•		. Ni-yang		•	. † . † 5	2. Two
Szpebi .	•	•		Same				. Sak-	par.		•		. Chhu-ya	rg .	•	- 3	3. Three.
Lichi .		•		Lē	•			. Bhal	ak-pu,	or mai	uk-p		. Bil-ning			. 4	i. Your.
Ngichi .				Ngō				. Bhol	-pa	•			U-ning			- 5	i. Five.
ľukchi .	•	•		Bukha				Jhak	·pa.	•			Caha-nin	· ·		. 6	. Six.
łuchi .	•	•	•	Chamai				. Rok-	bur "				*			7	Sevez.
lechi .				Tā.				. Rik-p	11, or 2	ok-pa			-	*****		8	. Eight.
lochi .	•			Gha			•	. Tam-	pa, er	ium-ba	٠.			*****		!	. Nine.
kpong .	•			Kwaddy	ZM.			. Tik-ri		•			Nayang g	ot' khuli	ъ	. 10	. Ten.
kkhālo .	•		•	Kwong	Leim		•	. Sakar	i.				Le got' E			. 11	. Twenty.
achās .		•		Niksi isi	im 1 -7	plalo		- Bhok	wi.					*** ***			. Fifty.
gik-khal	•			Ngo šaiz	n.			. Tik-ri	-ta				Ŭ-ning ch	olok			Hundred.
ongi.	•		•	G٥.				. Ang	•				Gō .			. 14	
-pi .				Wa				. Wa-p					, Ang		_		Of ma.
-mi	•			Wa-ke				. Wa-pe		•			Ang-mu .				Mine.
ei .	•	•		Go-saka	(I a	nd he), gō-s	i Inki					Go khāta	•			We
-khi-pi .				(I and and the Wa-si (m	tho	ka:fa	1-km (7 :	o .				Ang-chi (
_				their),	ike (s	rake (ny ana	my and Lyour)			•	•	•	chi mi (my and	and thy) d their),	: angki	i i	Of W.
mi.	•	٠	•	Wa-si-ke ikke.	, 1-si	-ke;	wakke	, Inki-p	о.	•	•	•		ang-chi;	ang-ki,	19.	Our.
emi .	•	•		Gå.	•	•	•	. Ānā	٠	•	•	•	G5n .		•	20.	Thou.
œ-pi .	•	•		I.	•	•	•	. А-ро	٠	•	•	•	Ung .	•	•	21.	Of thes.
m-mi.	•	•	•	Î-ke	•	•	•	А-ро	•	•	•	•	Ung-mu	•		22.	Thire.
· .	٠	•	•	Gä-ri (du	u); (gi-ni (plaral	Anu (•	•	•		Gon-chise (planel).	(dusl)	g grac	23.	You.
n-mi šeo	٠	•		Ī-ai (dus!); 1∹	ni (p)	ersi)	А-ро	•	•	•	٠	Ung-okhi (plural).	(dual);	un-ni	94.	Of you.
n-mi .				Ī-ni ; 1-ni		• 1		Å-po		•			Ung-chhi;			-	Your.

	Eng	lish.			D	hīmāl (Hodgso	n).		Thimi (D	arjeelii	ıg).		Limbu (Nej	pal).	Yākhā	Darjee	ling
2 6.	H• .	•			Wā		•			Dhā .		•	•	Khunë		Isāngālo		
27.	Of him	•		•	Ō-ko; 1	wān-ko	٠.	•	-	Dhā-ko ngāng	۲.	•		Khūnē-īn, kū-		U-ga-be		
28.	His .	•			Ō-ko;	wan-k	ю.			Ďhā-ko .	•		•	Khūnė-īn, kū-		U-gā .		
29.	They	•			Ū-bal	•		•		Dha-bang		•		Khūn-chhī .		U-jing-khi	•	
30.	Of them	•	•		Ū-bal-l	ko .	•	•		Dhā-mang ng	ang	•		Khūn-chhi-in .		U-jing-khik	kā-be	
B1.	Their	•	•		Ū-bal-	ko.	•	•		Ta-bang-ko		•	•	Khūn-chhī-in .		U-jinga .	•	
32.	Hand	•	•		Khūr	•	•	•		Lāk .	•	•		Hūk-tapē .		Muk .	•	
83.	Foot	•	•		Khôka	i ,	•	•		Konte .	•	•		Lâng-tapă .		Lang .	•	
84.	Nose	•	•	,	Nhāpā		•	•	•	Chingi .				Яebō		Naphuk .	•	
85.	Eye	•	•		м.	•	•	•		Mise .	•	•	•	Mik		Mik .	•	
86.	Mouth	4.	•		Nai		•	•	•	tīgo .	•	•	•	Mură		Mula .	•	
37.	Tooth	•	•		Sitong	•	•	•		Su wi .	•	•	•	Hā, hābō	• .	Ha .	•	
38.	Ear .	•	•		. Nähätl	hong	•	•		Kulna	•	•		Nekhō, něphak		Naphāk .	•	
89.	Hair	•	•		Po-sho	m.	•	•	•	Chimeng.	•	•		Mūrī (hair thegēk-pī (hair	of body),	Tām-phāk	• .	
Ю.	Head	•	•		Pürin		•	•	•	Kapu .	•	•	•	Thegek		Täng-khruk	•	
4 1.	Tongue	•	•		Dětěng	·	•	•	•	Chile .	•	•	•	Lesot, lesop-pa		Lem .	•	
1 2.	Belly	•	•		Hēmār	ıg ; pă	tām	•	•	Bäng-käl	•	•	•	Sapok		Phok .	•	
43,	Back	•	•		Gandi	•	•	•	•	Lukushā	•	•	•	Eg		Missing .		
44.	Iron	•	•		. Chir	•		•		Chitem .	•		•	Phenji		Kekchi .	•	
	Gold	•	•		Soma	•	•	•	٠	Šun .	•	•		Samyang .		Sāmmyāng	•	
4 6.	Silver	•	•		Rūpā	•	•	•	•	Chandi .	•	•	•	Yūpā	• •	Yuppā .	•	•
	Father	•	•		Abe	•	•	•		A-p4 .	•		•	Pā, pāpā .		₽ā	•	•
	Mother	•	•		Amma	•	•	•	•	Ā-mā	•	•	•	Mā, māmā .		Mā .	•	•
	Brother	٠	•		Yolk	•	•	•	٠	Bubu .	•	•	_	Phū (elder) ; nūsi	(younger)	Phū	•	•
	Sister	•	•		Rims	٠	•	•		Humi	•	•		Nennë (elder); 1 chhemë (younge	nüsä men- er).	Ņā	•	•
	. Man	•	•		Wāval	•	•	•		Mi	•	•		Manuwā .		Yāmbi .	•	•
52	Woman 410	. •			Beval	•	•	•		Chā-maichā	•	•		Menchhema .		Metnyong-mi	٠.	•

PERMA	(Desr	(colling).			Biking	(Hod	gaca),	;		24	(Mez	a 3).		1	Vaye	n Sed	gw)s.			Kagiish.
Ni				. Harer	1 .		•	. C	731	-				, Wath			• ••	TRAC V C		6. Ha .
Kho-pi .				Ā, hār	em-ke			. 0			•	•		Wath		·	•		1	7. Of him.
Kho-mi .		•	•	Å-ke,)	irem.	-ke		. 0				•		Wath			•		1	
Kho-chi .				Hårem		•	•	Hi			•	•		,				•	1	S. His.
Kho-chi-pi				Å-ni		•		i i	-mal-		•	•		Wath			•	•	i	9. They.
Kho-chi-mi	٠			Ā-ni		•	•	i			•	•		Wate					1). Of them.
Huh, huk		_		Gu ble		•	•	. H			•	٠		Wath	-m kh	ita-n	.	•	3	l. Their.
long .	•	•		Kholi t		•	•	. Ki		•	•			. Gas	•	•	•	·	33	l. Hand.
(ip	•	•				•	•	į	alle.	•	•	•		. La .	•	•	•	•	33	. Foci.
_	•	•		Nez	•	•	•	. Un		•	•	•		. Cho'ma	•	•	•	•	84	. Nose.
liksi .	•	•		Michi	•	•	•	. Mil	mi	•	•	•		Mek'	•	•	•		35	. Eye.
go .	•	•		Sheo	•	•	•	. U-k		•	•	•		Makeb	z .	•	•		36	. Month.
ing .	•	•		Khku	•	•	•	. Ngi	b	•	•	•	•	La	•		•		27.	Tooth.
obo .	•	•		Sámane	1	•	•	Ngi	cho	•	•	•		Nok-el	arg	٠	•		38.	Ear.
oming .	•	•		Swing	•	•	•	. Do-1	ALCO,	•	•	•	•	Swen		•	•	•	39.	Hair,
ong.	•	•	\cdot	Piya .	•	•	•	. Dak	in .				•	Pachki	•			• 3	40.	Hand.
Pana	•	•		Lyana	•	•	•	U-le	- ,	•	•			L.				•	41.	Tougue.
	•	•	-	Koja	•	•		U-m	nps.	•	•			Mali; l	imli				42.	Belly.
mi ,	-	•	-	Ching	•	•		Chh			•			ski					48.	Back.
1 .	•	•	. 8	Syall				Sel	٠.				•	Khakeb	hing-n	ni			44.	Iron.
n.	•	•	ء .	yerna	• ,	•		Nima	y 97 E	1010, .	•			Helden	;-mi				45.	Gold.
indi	•	•			*** *	••	•	Chân	di.			•		Dawing	-mi		•		1 6.	Silver.
٠,				ipo .				Pu	•					Ū pā					47.	Father.
4	•		. 2	lmo .	. ,			Mu	٠,									-		Mother,
(elder);	1	e-chh	Ĺ	.5-bs. (y (e7.5∞)	oua ge ,	r);			M ocky	١.			-	Böln (els	ler) : h	il)= /	Money			
yeenger). 10-ckhangi .			L	oba (s			ylws					-		Nama (e						
ei, .				(eider). Tainen		1		Min					- (er). Lõoke	·) i	-uj a	(Nom)			
			ı					, — -	•	•	•	•	1	LAUGE	•	• •	•	1	1	Man.

	Engli	ieb.			Dhir	ll) lân	odgson).		Thi	ni (Ds	srjeelin	g).	;	Limi	na (M	epal).	•	Yak	hā (Da	arjeeliz	18).
3.	Wife	•			Bē.	•	•	•	•	Umā	•	•	•		Mēt .	•		•	Met-chhā	,		•
Ŀ.	Child	•	•		Chan	•	•	•		Huchi	•	•	•		Henjā sā				Pichchh i			
5.	Som.		•	-	Chan	•		•		Chā	•	•	•		Embechhā	sā .	,	•	Chyā	•		
6.	Daughter	•	•		Chamdi			•	•	Chā-mai	•		•	•	Menchhemi	. sā .			Metnyn-l)ā,		
7.	Slave		•	•			•••			Sherh i	•			\cdot	Yōgbā .		,		Pānībā			
8.	Cultivator		•		Porja		•		•		***	• • • •		-	Yā-kē-mō-b	i (da	ily l	aboure	Tendangi	ž		
9.	Shepherd	•				•••	•••			Goṭhālo		•			Kē-kām-bā		,	•	Gothala	•		•
SO.	God.		•	•	Wā-rāng	; Bē-	rāng		•	Bhagwai	3	•			Mang .	•	•		Ishara			•
31.	Devil		•	•		• • • •	••			Bhut	•		•		Parët .		•	•	Bhut	•	•	
2.	Sun .	•	•	•	Bělá		•		•	Ūni	•		•		Nam .		•	•	Nām			
3,	Moon	•	•		Tāli	•			•	Chālā		•		\cdot	Lā-bā .		•		La		•	
4.	Star.	•	•	•	Phűrö				•	Üchhi	•		•	\cdot	Khēsi-mik-	pä .	•		Chok-cho	Hi	•	•
5.	Fire.	•	•	•	Mẽ.		•	•		Meh		•	•		Mē .				. Mi	•		•
6.	Water	•	•	•	Chī	•	•	•		Pängku	•	•	•		Chúi .		•		Mang-ch	u wâ		
7.	House		•	•	Sā.		•	•		Nem	•	•	•		Him .	,	•	•	Pāng	•		
8.	Horse	•	•		Õyhä	•	•	•	•	Ghora	•	•	•		Ōn.		•	•	On.	•		
39.	Cow.	•	•	•	Piā	•	•	•		Sujā		•			Pit .		•		. Pik			
70.	Dog.	•	•	•	Khia	•		•	•	Kuchu	•	•	•		Kāchā .		•	•	. Kuchum	i.	•	
71.	Cat .	•	•	•	Měnkau	•	•	•		Biralo	•		•		Miyong .		•	•	Pusukmi			
72.	Cook	•	•	•	Dhingi	i kia	•	•	•	Gāre	•	•	•		Wā bhālā		•		. Ipāchhā	•	•	•
73.	Duck	•	•	•	Hangs	•	•	•	•	Hāns	•		• .		Hānsā .	,	•	•	Hānsa	•	•	•
74.	Ans .	•	•	•	Gadha	•		•	•	Gadhā	•	•	•		Gadhā .	,	•		Gadhihi		•	•
75.	Camel	•	•	•		•••	••••			Uņţ		•	•		Ùnth .		•	•	Unt	•		•
	Bird.	•	•	•	Jiha	•	•	•	٠	Rhängäl		•	•		Pā .	,	•	•	Nuwi	•	•	•
	Go.	•	•	•	Hadē-li	(Verb	al no	un)	•	Yas	•	•	•		Pēgē .	,	•	•	Khiya	•	•	•
	Eat .	•	•	•	Chi-li	•		•	•	Chiya	•	•	•	٠	Chē .		•	•	Cho	•	•	•
79.	St.	•	, •		Yong-li	•				Hoki					Yang-a ,		,		Yungi			

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hā.	•	•		•	Tā-wa					Oba					Timo					. 55	5
hekur	no-cl	ah <u>a</u>			Ti-mi					Cham	leham				. Tami	7	·	•	•		. Dangater.
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iāreta:	ıw <u>i</u>	•			Byang-	si-ko	k-ha			Ua-zet		•	•							•	Slave.
ebālā.					Bhēra :								•		. Ko-du				٠	58.	Caitivetor.
war		-				mr & fry ?	-	•	•	Bhers-	jak-pu		•	•	Eeli tõ	avi	٠	•	,	59.	Shepherd.
āppā		•	•	•		•	•• •••			Iscr	•	•	•	•	1				1	6 0.	ല് ാർ .
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ger	•	•	•	-	Sorti	•	•	•	. !	Sanger	•	•	•		Khwan	1601		•	• }	ő4.	Sur
	•	•	•	-	Mi	•	•	•	,	N:	•				Ma		•			55.	Fire.
WŠ.	•	•	•	-[Pwika	•	•			Kanka		•	•		Ti.	•			•	6 0.	Water.
im .	,	•	•	-	Khyira			•	• ;	Kira					Kėm				•	67.	Нолм.
ori .	ı	•	•		Ghara				-	Ghori					Goda				1		Horae.
				•	Bing					Bhii					Gai			•	1		Cow.
-bi					Khlicha					Khiba				- 1	Ūzi	•	•	•	1		
imā .		•			Birma.					Monim		•	•	1		•	•	•			Dog.
ž,				1	ipo ba		•		1			•	•		Dina	•	•	•			Cat.
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haha .		•	•	•		***	•••		1	Ling	•	•	•	•		•••	***		7	3.]	Dack.
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TEN.	•	•	•	. 0	hikba,	•	•	•		ilpa	•	•	•		Chichi	•	•	•	. 7	6. I	Sird.
	•	•	•	E	iwo ,	•	•	•	E	Ikrechi	• •	•			Le'le	•	•		. 7	7. 6	in,
•	•	,	•	. 3	iwo ,	, ,	•			oni.		•			lko				. 7	5. E	àt.
HE.		ı			.				1	o-ni				1.	Enuche				1). S	

	glish.		-	Dhīmāl (H	edgson).	~	Thimi (D	arjeeli	ng).		Limbu (Ne	pal).		Yak	hā (D arj	eeling).
80. Come	•	•	•	Lē-li .		•	Raa .			•	Pherē	•		Ābā		
81. Beat	•		•	Dānghai-li			Ŗeho .		,		Hiptě . ,			Moktu	• •	•
82. Stand				Jāp-li .			Things .				Pogē .				• •	•
83. Die .	•			Sī-li .		•	Siyā .	ā			Siē .	•	•	Pugā	• •	•
84. Give				Pī-li			Piyang .				Pī-rang-nē (to	•		Siyā	• •	•
85. Bun.		•		Dhāp-li .			Drokā	•	•	•	(to anybody).	me),	bre	Pi	• •	•
86. Up .		•	•	••••			Yobi	•	•	•		•	•	Luktā	• · •	•
87. Near			•	Chângsō .				•	•	•	Tho	•	•	To	• •	
88. Down				-		•		•	•	•	Nētang		•	Chhong	• * •	٠
89. Far .				Dūrē .	••		Nabi	•	•	•	Yō, mō .	•	•	Mo ·	• •	•
0. Before				T.: 12	• •	•	Ā-lam-thā	٠	•	٠	Mānkhā	•	•	Mangdu	• •	•
l. Behind				Wha share	• •	•	Hābi .	•	•		Togang	•	•	Åthum	• •	•
2. Who					• •	•	Libi .	•	•		Egang	•	•	U-heksan	g	•
3. What		•		Hē-ti; hāshū	• •	•	Suguri .	•	•	•	Hâ, en	•		·I-sā.		•
4. Why				Hai .	• •	٠	Hārāburi	•	•		The	•	•	I-la .	•	•
5. And.	•	•		Hai pā-li	•	-	Hārāburi	•	•	\cdot	Thiang	•		I-juk· ,		•
6. But .	•	•			•		Ani .	•	•		Na	•		Ikhok .		
7. If .	•	•		Kintu-nā .	•		Mā-ho-ke	•	•	\cdot	Sang			Tara .		•
8. Yes .	•	•		*** 40	•		***	***			-ila			Bhane .	•	,
9. No .	•	•	1	На	•	-	Āde ,	•			Wa			Нő-ő· .	•	
0. Alas	•	•		A-hē	•		Mā-thā .	•		•	Нор	•		Nākngā .	•	
l. A father	•	•		Hai-hai	•		Háe .	•		\cdot				Ambi .		
2. Of a fath		•	ı	Aba	•	-	Ã-pā	•		. :	Lop-thik på .		. :	lkko bi .		
		•		Aba-ko	•	-	Ā-pā-ko	•		- 1	Lop-thik pā-ren		.]	ikko b ā-gā		•
3. To a fathe		•	1	Abading		+	Å-pā-kai.	•	•	. 1	Lop-thik pā-in				\$44 Pro	
From a fa		•	1	Aba-sko	•		Å-på-dekhin	•	• .	i	Lop-thik pā-rōù-n	ħ.		kko bā-gā		
. Two fathe		•	-	Ngë-long aba ,			Dui ā-pā-haru	•	•		Nechhi pā-hā, pap			Hichchi bā		•
4 14	•	•		dha galai .	,		A-pā-haru	_			Pā-hā, papā-si		İ	šá-chí .	•	-

Khamba (Derjeeling)	Paking (Hodgeen)	Bli (Negal).	Väyn (Hodgeon)	English.
Ban-te	Rivo; piwo	Pis	. Phi	52. Come.
Kir-te	. Тепрро	Yemmai	Торо	81. Beas.
Phorep-te	Rappo	Repmachini	Ipcke	\$2. Stand.
Siya		Micha	Mot'	83. Dia.
Pi-fe	. Giwo	Binga	Hato	54. Giva.
Bulth-to	. Warro	Bhula	Lin	85. Run.
Mikto	. Hateula	Tako	Lonkha	84. Up.
khingi	. Nextha	Taba	Khe'wa	67. Near.
Kuken	. Gware, gwayen	Ukokai	Youkha	36. Down.
Orotomā	Bribs	Yakakhu	Kho'lam	89. Far.
lais-pi	. Ngalla di	Lalbu	Hozke	90. Before.
Dos-pi	. Noths di	Yaba	Nungra .	91. Behind.
ine	Sys	Bo	St; sini	92. Who.
Ja	Mira	Ma	Mische	93. What.
Idohoe	. Mirt-ngi	Maka	Mischapä	94. Why.
Aiyāh		KE		95. And.
uli	. Naka	Meye.	****	96. But.
Ooko	Khôdda	Takhe	-ea; -nam; -phon	97. If.
»	. Aja	I	****	98. Yes.
điệ	Maa	Mund	PA- 0-0-	99. No
iyi		Agu		100. Alas.
bom på	. A-po	Tik-pa pa	Cpa	101. A father.
bom pā-mi	. Ā-po ā	Tik-pa pa-pa		162. Of a faiber.
hom ping	Ā-po la , , ,	Tik-pa ya-lai	Cpa	103. To a father.
bom på-pkä	. A-pe ding	Tik-pu pu-laks		104. From a father.
gichchi piraki	. Å-po dan-si	Sale-pa pa-mal .		105. Two fathers.
li-chi	. I-po das	Pa-mal		106. Fathers.

English.	Dhimäl (Hodgson).	Thimi (Darjeeling).	Limbu (Nepal).	Yākhā (Darjeeling).
107. Of fathers .	Aba galai-ko	Ā-pā-haru-ko	Pā-hā-ren	Bā-chi-gā
08. To fathers .	. Aba galai-ëng	Ā-pā-haru-lāi	Pā-hā-ren .	Bā-chi .
109. From fathers .	Aba galai-sho	Ā-pā-haru-dekhin	Pā-hā-rōū-nū	Bā-chi-nung
110. A danghter .	Ckamdi	Diware chā-mai	Lop-thik menchhemā sā .	Ikko metnyung-ma chiy
III. Of a daughter .	Chāmdi-ko	Diware chā-mai-ko .	Lop-thik menchhemā sā-	
12. To a daughter .	· Chāmdi-āng	Diware chā-mai-lāi	Lop-thik menchhema sa-	Ikko metnyung-mā ā-ci
113. From a daughter	Chāmdi-sho	Diware chā-mai-dekhin	Lop-thik menchhema sa-	Ikko mimu-gi-mi
114. Two daughters .	Ngē-long chāmdi	Dui chā-mai-pāli	röü-nü. Nechhi menchhemä sä-hä	Hichchi metreno
115. Daughters	Chamdi galai	Chi-mai-păli	Menchhemā sā-hā	chiya-chi. Metnyung-ma chiya-ri
116. Of daughters	Chāmdi galai-ko	Chā-mai-pāli-ko	Menchhemā sā-hā-ren .	Metnyung-mā chiyā-ni-g
17. To daughters .	Chāmdi galai-ēng	Chā-mai-pāli-lāi	Menchhemā sā-hā-in .	Māmu
18. From daughters .	· Chāmdi galai-sho	Chā-mai-pāli-dekhin.	Menchhemā sā-hā-rōti-nū .	Metnyung-mi chiyi
19. A good man .	. Elka wā-val	Diware āpra mi	Lop-thik manë në-ba	nung. Ikko nu-na yap-mi
20. Of a good man .	Elka wā-val-ko	Diware āprā mi-ko	Lop-thik nō-bā manō-ren	Ikko nu-nā yāp-mi-gā
21. To a good man .	. Elka wā-val-ēng	Diware āprā mi-lāi	(or manë-ilen). Lop-thik manë no-ba-rën	Ikko nu-na yap-mi
22. From a good man	Elka wā-val-sho	Diware āprā mi-dekhin	(or no-ba-î len). Lop-thik manē-rodnu no-ba	Ikko nu-na yap-mi-nung
23. Two good men .	Ngë-long ëlka wā-val	Nis-ka āprā mi	Nechhī nō-hā(-sī) manē-hâ	-
24. Good men	Elka wā-val galai	Āprā mi-haru	Nō-bā manē-hā	Nu-hā yāp-mi-chi
25. Of good men	Elka wā-val galai-ko	Āprā mi-pūli-ko	Nō-bà manē-hā-ren	Nu-hā yāp-mi-chi-gā
26. To good men	Elka wa-val galai-ang	Àprā mi-pēli-kai		Nu-hā yāp-mi-chi-ngā
27. From good men.	Elka wā-val galai-aho	Āprā mi-pāli-dekhin		Nu-hā yāp-mi-chi-nu n g
28. A good woman .	Elka bē-val	Diware āprā chā-mai-chā	Lop-thik kë-në-më men-	Ikko nuni metneng-mi
29. A bad boy	Ma člka wa-jan	Diware maramro hu-cha pali	chhemā	Ikko isi-nā pichchhā
0. Good women	Elka bē-val galai	(sic). Āprā chā-mai-chā pāli		Nu-hā metnyung-chi
il. A bad girl	Mā ēlka bājan ,	Diware narāmro chā-mai-chā		Ikko isi-nā metnyange .
2. Good . ,	filka	Åprä	N-1-	Nu-nā
3. Betier	A1-1-1	Apri	-nū-lē nō-bā	

Khamba (Darjeeling).	Bilding (Hodgam).	Rai (Nopel).	Yaya (Holgan).	Hoglish.
Papa-chi-mi	Ā-po das ā-ni	Pa-ham-po	. Cpā khāta-m .	167. Of fathers.
På-chi-mi	Ā-po das la			108. To fathers.
Pā-chi-pkā	Ā-po das ding			109. From fathers
Ibom mimchna	Tā-mi	·		110. A daughter.
Ibom o-chhā-pkā (sic)	Tā-miā-	Tik-pa mi-cham-cha-po		III. Of a daughter.
Ibom o-chhi mimchhi-pki (sic).	1	Tik-pa mi-chum-chu-lii		112. To a daughter.
Ibom o-chhā-chi-pkā (sic) .	_	Tik-pş mi-cham-chu-laka .		113. From a daughter.
Ngippo mimchhi-chi .	Tā-mi das-si	Sak-pp mi-cham-cha-him .		114. Two daughters.
Mimchha-chi	Ti-mi daa			115. Daughters.
Mimchki-chi-mi	Tā-mi das ā-ni.			116. Of daughters.
Ichhā-chi mimchhā	Tā-mi das la	Mi-chum-chu-hāra-lāj		117. To daughters,
lehhā-chi-pkā	Ti-mi das ding	Mi-chum-chu-hām-laka .		118, From daughters.
Opo missi nopā	*** 500	Tik-pu na-pu min		119. A good mas.
Ibom ngāli nopā	444 504	Тік-ра ма-ра шіп-ро		120. Of a good man.
Opo ngali nopa	*** ***	Tik-pa ma-pa min-läi		121. To a good man.
llpo ngali no-pi-ka	ese pag	Tik-pp na-pu min-laka .	Neh ka löche khen	122. From a good man.
Ngippo ngali nopa	****	Sak-pa m-pa min-mul .	Neh'ka liche nakpo	123. Two good men.
Ngšli nop-chi	*** ***	Na-pa min-mal	Nek ha liche khita	124. Good men.
Ngali nop-chi-mi	01 8 200	Na-pq min-panl-pe	Nah'ka löcho khāta-m	125. Of good men.
gali nop-ham	#95 VAG	Na-pa min-mul-lki	Nob ka lõcho	126. To good men.
gali nop-chi-ka	**** ***	Na-pu min-mul-laka	Neh'ka löcho khan	127. From good men.
lpo mimchhā ngāli nopā .	APR BOT	Тік-ри па-ри мі-одим .	Noh'ka meseke	128. A good woman.
lpo wachekka ngáli ipä	*** 694	Tik-pe je-a-da akushu	Ming noh'ki tiwo	129. A bad boy.
igali zopa mimehba-eki .	242 004	Na-pa mi-shum	Neh'ka meseho khitia	130. Good women.
lpo mimehhā ngāli ipā	*** ***	Tik pa ja e du mi-chilm shu	Mang.noh'ka tami	181. A bad girl.
ept.	Neuba.	Жа-ре.	Weh'kx	LRE. Geod.
gali nopa	You ding neaha	Jhan ma-pe	Watking khen noh'ka	133. Better.

	Eng	dish.			Dhimāl (Hodgson).	Thāmi (Darjeelin	ug).	Limbu (Nepal).	Yākhā (Darjeeling).
134.	Best.		•	•	Sogiming-ko nhā-dong ēlka	Jhan āprā .		Kāk-nū-lā (chhenā) nō-bā	Uchu nu-nā
135.	High		•	•	Dhāngā	Ālamgā		Kām-bā	Ket-na
136.	Higher	•	•	•	Ö-kö nhå-dong dhängå .	Jhan älamgä .		Chhenā (more) kēm-bā .	Ket-nā-hi
137.	Highest	•	•	•	Sogiming-konhādong dhāngā.	Ajhar ālamgā .		Kāk-rūlē kēm-bā	Nabhaudācha ketnā .
138.	A horse	•	•	٠	бућа	Diware ghora .		Lop-thik on	Ikko on
139.	A mare	•	•	٠	Thangani õyhä	Diware ghori .		Lop-thik ön kü-m-mä	Ikko on i-mā-chhā .
L 4 0.	Horses	•	•	٠	Õyhä galai	Ghorā-pāli .		Ön-hā	On-zi
l 4 1.	Mares	•	•	•	Thangani õyhä galai	Ghori-pāli .		On kū-m-mā-hā	On i-mā-chhā-chi .
42.	A bull	•	•	•	Dānkhā piā	Diware pāpā-s y ā		Pit sandriå (a black bull with red markings).	Ikko pik
	A cow	•	•	•	Mahani piā	Diware māmā-syā		Pīp-mā	Ikko-pik-mā
44.	Bulls	•	•	•	Dānkhā piā galai	Pāpā-syā-pāli .		Pit sandrīā-hā	Pik-chi
45. (Cows	•	•	•	Mahani piā galai	Māmā-syā-pāli	• •	Pīp-mā-hā	Pik-mā-chi
	A dog	•	•	•	Dānkhā khīā	Diware kuchu .		Lop-thik kacha	Ikko kuchu-mā .
	A bitch	•	•	•	Mahani khīš	Diware kuchu-mi		Lop-thik köchö-mä	Ikko kuti-mā
	Dogs	•	•		Dānkhā khīā galai	Kuchuwā pāli .	• •	Kēchē-hā	Kuchu-mā-zi
	Bitches	•	•	•	Mahani khiā galai	Kuchumā pāli .	• •	Kōchō-mā-hā	Kuti-mā-zi
-	A he gos		•		Eēchā	Diware boke churi	• •	Lop-thik mëndak yarim-ba	Ikko ippā chhā .
	A female	goat	•		Mahani ešchā	Diware māmā churi	• •	Lop-thik mëndak-më	Ikko imā chhā .
	Goats	•	•	•	Eēchā galai	Churi-pāli .	• .	Mēndak-hā	Menthimā-chi
	A male d		•	•	*** ***	Diware dārhe ārki	• .	Lop-thik pëngwā kū-m-bā	Ikko kissä darhe .
	A female	deer	•	•	******	Diware māmā ārki	• .	Lop-thik pëngwā kū-m-mā	Ikko kissā umā .
	Deer	•	•	•	*** ***	Ārķi-pāli	٠.	Pēngwā-hā	Kissā-chi
	I am	•	•		Kā jāhi-kā	Gai hok-ngā-du	• •	Angā wā-ā	Kii
	Thou art He is	•	•	-	Nā jāhi-nā	Nā hok-ngā-du	• •	Khenë k'-wā	Ing-khi nākkā .
	We are	•	•		Wā jēbi	Begäle hoddu .	• .	Khunë wā	U-khii
	Ton are	•	•	í		Ni-hoki-du .	• .	Ānī ā-wā, ānīgē wā-igē	Āning nā-hāi
	1 on are	•	•	•	Nyël jëhi-nyël .	Nang hotna-du		Kheni k'-wā-i	Ing-khi nā-kū

Khambu (Darjeeling)	Biling (Hodgeon).	Rii (Kopai).	läyn (Hulgron).	Roglish.
Nopa	Haups ding nemba	Jhan na-pa	. Sahim khen noh ka	134. Pers.
Urorepä	Laba	Rippa	. Jongta	135. High.
Hosongi urorepi .	Yem ding liba.	Jhan rippu	. Wathim khen jongta	136. Higher.
Jhan-jhan urorepä .	Haupe ding labs.	Jhan rippa	. Sabim khen jongta	137. Highest.
Ibom ghorā	Åpo ghōra	Tik-pu ghori	. Gada	138. A horse.
Ibom ghori	Āmo ghōra	Tik-pa gheri	. Mercho goda	139. A mare.
Ghori-chi	. Åpo ghöra das	Ghori-ham	. Godā khām	140. Harses.
Ghori-chi	Åmo ghōra das	Ghori-him	. Mes'cho gödä khāta	141. Mares.
Ibom goru	Åpo bing	Tik-pa skryf	. Löcho gai	142. A ball.
Chorn pi	Amo bing	Tik-pa bhi	. Gai	143. A cow.
Bishi-chi	Āpo bing dan	Siryi-him	Löcho gai khāta	144. Bulla.
Pi-chi	Āmo bing das	Bhi-mal .	. Gai khita	145. Cows.
bom kheba	Āpo khlicha	Tik-pa khiba	Lõcho tri	146. A dog.
bom khepchi	Āmo khlichs	Tik-pu khibu me	. Mes'cho tri	147. A hiseh.
Chep-chi	Āpo khlicha das	Khibu mal	. Löche üri khāta	148. Dogs.
Khepchi-chi	Āmo khlicha das	Khibu-me-mul	Mes'cho ari khita	149. Bitches.
bom chhängärä-pä	Āpo swongāra	Tik-pa chhangar boki	Löcho chali	150. A he goet,
bom chhāngārā-mā	Åmo swongära	Tik-pu chhangur	Mes'cho cheli	151. A female goat,
hhingiri-chi	Swongara daa	Chhangur-bekä-mul.	Cheli khāta	152, Goais.
oom khissi däre	Āpo kini	Tik-pu darhya mirga .		53. A male door.
oom khis oon-mä	Āmo kisi	Fik-pa mirga me		54. A female decr.
his-chi	Kini dan	Mirga-mal	Kachho 1	55. Decr.
ongā tao	Bwing-ngi	Ang mo-tā	No-ngo-m 1	56. I am.
m tuwo	Bwing-ngs	Ānš mo-tš	No-na-m	57. Thou art.
kungko tuwa	Bwing	Um mo-tu	Ма-ті	58. He is.
eitawe	Bwak-ka.	log-ku mukii	No ka-na 1	59. We are.
ı tırwe	Bwang-ni	ing (sis)-mul i-mo-bi-ni .	No-ne-m	60. You are.

English.	Dhīmāl (Hodgson).	Thămi (Darjeeling).	Limbu (Nepal).	Yākhā (Darjæling).
161. They are	Ü-baljēhi	Dhā-mā pāli hod-du	Khūnchhī mē-wā	I-khā-zi nāekhā
162. I was	Kā higā-hi-kā	Gai hok-ngā-thiyo	Angā wāyang	Kā wāeng-nā
163. Thou wast	Na higa-hi-na	Nā hoknā-du-thiyo	Khenā k'-wā-yē	Ing-khi wāc-gā-nā
164. He was	Wâ higā-hi	Dhā hod-du-thiyo	Khānē wā-yē	Hitnā wāe-na
165. We were	Kyēl higā-hi-kyēl	Ni hoki-du-thiyo	Ānī ā-wā-yē, ānīgē wā-igē	Āning-khi wainghā .
166. You were	Nyēl higā-hi-nyēl . *.	Ningwai hodni-du-thiye .	Kheni k'-wāri	Inning-khik waiga-hi
167. They were	Ũ-bal higā-hi	To-bängai hodni-du-thiyo .	Khūnahhī mē-wā-yē	I-khā-zi waeha-zi
168. Be	Jē	Thas	Wā-yē, pok-hē	Leksā
169. To be	Jēng-li	Thāsā	Wā-mā; pōng-mā	Wetnā
170. Being	Jēng-katang :	Thatale	Kā-wā-pā, kē-pōng-pā.	We-nu-chā
171. Having been	Jång-tång	Jet-long-tü-le	Wā-yē-ang ; pōk-sē-ang .	Leksä-gä-hung .
172. I may be	001 200	Gai thāngnā.du	Angā pōng-mā sūk-tū-ng .	Kā leng-me-ngā-nā .
173. I shall be	Kā jēnkā	Gai hoknā du	Angā wā-ā ·	Kā leng-ngā.
174. I should be	******	Gai-kāi thā-ngā du	Angā wā-ā	Kā yung-mā-leng-di
175. Beat	Dāng-hai	Reho	Hîp-tō	Mokmā
176. To beat	Dāng-hai-li	Re-munä	Hip-mā	Mok-mă-gă
177. Beating	Dang-hai-katang	Rehunā	Hip-tū-ang	Mokmā-ngā
178. Having beaten	Dang-hai-tëng	Reko-dumtole	Hip-tū-ang	Mok-tu-kā-hong .
179. I best	Kā dāng-hai-khi-kā	Ge rehunu	Angă kip-tũ-ng (him, and so also in Nos. 180-184).	Mok-neng
180. Thou beatest	Nā dāng-hai-khi-nā	Ne rehuni-du	Khenē k'-hip-tū	Ing-khi-ngā mok-tn -gā
181. He beats	Wā dāng-hai-khi	Dhāi rehu-du	Khūnē hīp-tū :	U-khi-ngāng mok-tā
182. We beat	Kyêl dâng-hai-khi-kyēl .	Ni re-ai	Ānī ā-hip-tū-m, ānī-gē hip- tū-m-bš.	Kā-ni-ngā mok-tu-nu
183. You beat	Nyël dang-hai-khi-nyël .	Nai reho	Kheni-k'-hip-tü-m	Ing-khi-ngā mok-ta .
184. They beat	U-bal däng-hai-khi	Dhi-bang-e rehu-du	Khūnohhī mē-hip-tū	U-jing-khik-nga mokka
185. I beat (Past Tense) .	Kā dāng-hai-hi-kā	A	Angā kip-nē (thee, and so also in Nos. 186-190).	,
186. Thou beatest (Pari Tense)	Na dang-hai-ki-na	849 440	Khenë-k'-hip-sing	f.c
187. He beat (Past Tense) .	Wa dang-hai-hi		Khūnė k'-hip-tē	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •

Ehamba (Darjeci	ing).	Elking (Hodgson).	olāl Nepal).	Väyz (Hødgenn).	English.
Khas tuwe .		Bwang-me	U-mul-ham mo-ta .	Ni-me-m	151. They are.
Kong tuo .		Bwakti	Ang mongs	. No-sang-mi	162. I was
ām tuwāyo .		Bwakte	Ali mom	No-nu-m	1°3. Thou wast.
Cho tuwa .		Bwikti	Um mem	No-mi	: : 184. He waa
Ke tuwe .		Bwāktāko	Ång-ku mukš	No-keng-ni	165. We were.
in-ni tawani .		Bwāktāni	An-ni &-mo-nim	X5-re-m	106. You were.
Chas tuwā		Bwäktäme	U-mul-him mom	Хо-ше-ш	167. They were.
egali nota		Bwākko	Chhai-na	×3	168. Be.
hhuwā .		Bwakcho	Chhui-nu lii	Nev-many	164. To be.
hhuwini .		Bwing-na	Chhak-thing-ta	Not'-he	170. Being.
hhuwā-khāinā		Bwäktiko	Chhu-khu-ka	Not'-not'-hi	171. Having been.
ong chhuoni .	•	১০০ বক্স	Ang chhu-na chāp-ta .	900.000	172. I n.ay be.
ong taohola .		Bwang-nga	Arg chhap-tu	Nô-ngo-m	173. I shall be.
ong chhuoni.		Go bwak-cho dynm	Ang chhap-ta		174. I should be.
ez-to		Teuppo	Yom-di	Tops	175. Best.
eram-lagi .		Teupcho	Yomom	To'mung	17d. To best
er-mi		001 005	Yoza-jata	Tep'-be	177. Beating.
er-e-ni · .		Terp-tä-ko	Yom-da-ka	Top-top-hi	178. Having beaten.
ongi kero .		Terb-ü	Ang-ā yām-ta	To'-mi	179. I beat.
ni karo · .	• •	Teab-l	Ānā-ā yam-thatis	То'-ші	180. Thou beatest.
ho-skp kers .	•	Toub-i	Um-ā yam-tha-ia	To'-mi	181. He beats.
ciya kerang .		Temp-kā	U-mul-ham-a (sic) yom-ti- ni.	То'-ре-т	182. We beat.
nă ker-te		Toum-ni	Ārād yārama	Тор-ве-ш	183. You best
hacki kachino		Teum-me	U-mal-ham-a yom-tinim .	То'-ме-та	184. They best.
5 von 200		Temp-temp	(Go yāl-io¹)	To'-pung-mi	185. I lunt (Pust Tenas).
5 000 EDS		Tenp-ion	(Gi-ni-yil-ni)	To puesa.	186. Thou beatest (Pa Tense).
Non 1986		Toup-it	(Guk ägā yāleta)	To'-pa-m	187. He beat (Past Tenns

English.	Dhīmāl (Hodgson).	Thāmi (Darjeeling).	Limbu (Nepal).	Yākhā (Darjeslin
188. We beat (Past Tense)	Kyēl dāng-hai-hi-kyēl .	******	Ānīgē hip-āsīgē	
189. You beat (Past Tense)	Nyël dang-hai-hi-nyël	•	Kheni k'-hip-āsi (your-	••••••
190. They bent (Past Tense)	Ū-bal dāng-hai-hi	k	Khûnchhī k'-mē-hip-tē .	••••••
191. I am beating	Kā elāng dāng-hai-khi-kā .	Ge jehundu	Angā hip-ā-sing (myself) .	Kā mok-mā-ngā seng
192. I was beating	Kā lāmpāng dāng-hai-khi-kā	Ge rehundu nähundu .	Angā hip-tā-ng (him) .	Kā-ngā mok-mā-ngā;
193. I had beaten	Kā dāng-hai-hi-kā	Ge rehunda	Angā hip-tū-ng bānēbā .	Kā-ngā mok-tu-ngā.
194. I may beat	*** ***	Ge refina	Angā hip-mā sāk-nē (I can beat thee).	Kā mok-tā hesung .
195. I shall beat	Kā dāng-hai-āng-kā	Ge refinu	Angā hip-tū-ng (him) .	Kā mok-twāng-ngā .
196. Thou wilt beat	Nā dāng-hai-āng-nā	*** ***	Khenē k'-hip-ā (me)	*** ***
197. He will beat	Wā dāng-hai-āng	•••	Khūnē hip-ā (me)	•••••
198. We shall beat	Kyēl dāng-hai-āng-kyāl .	*** ***	Ānīgē hip-ā-sīgē (thee) .	*** ***
199. You will beat	Nyēl dāng-hai-āng-nyēl .	*** ***	Kheni k'-hip-āsī (yourselves)	DDs das
200. They will beat	Ū-bal dāng-hai-āng	•••	Khūnchhī k'-mē-hip (thee)	*** ***
201. I should beat	·····	Gai-ke reke mai-du	Angā hip-tū-ng	Kã chả mok-twảng-nà
202. I am beaten	Kā dāng-hai-nēn-chā-khi-kā	Gai-kai rengang	Augā hip-ā	Kā mok-tā chāeng-nā
203. I was beaten	Kā dāng-hai-nēn-chā-hi-kā	Gai-kai re-nga-do thiyo .	Angā hip-tang	Kā mok-tā chāe-tā-tān
204. I shall be beaten .	Kā dāng-hai-nēn-chāngkā .	Gai-kai resā chāhi du .	Angā hip-ā	Kā tembuk chāwāng
05. I go	Kā hadā-khi-kā	Gai yā-ngā-du	Angā pēk-ā	lok-pe. • Kā khek-ngā
206. Thou goest	Nā hadē-khi-nā	Nāng yā-nā-duk-lā	Khenë k'-pēg	Ing-khi khekkā .
207. He goes	Wā hadē-khi	Dhāyā-du	Khûnê pêg	Ŭ-khi khee-nā
208. We go	Kyēl hadē-khi-kyčl	······	Ānī ā-pēg, ānīgē pēgigē .	***
209. You go	Nyēl hadē-khi-nyēl .	****	Khenî k'-pēg-ī	444 184
210. They go	Ū-bal hadē-khi		Khunchki mē-pēg	. 4
211. I went	Kā hadē-hi-kā	Gai yāng-ngāng	Angā pēgang	Kā kheeng-nā .
212. Thou wentest	Nā hadā-hi-nā	Nāng yā-ngāng	Kheni k'-pēgē, or k'-pē	Ing-khi khyā-kā-nā
213. He went	Wā hadē-lii:	Dhā yā-hān	Khunt pëgë, or pë	U-khi khyā-nā •
214. We went	Kyèl hadê-hi-kyêl		Āni ā-pē, ānigē pēgigē .	

Khamisa (Darjeeling).	Bihing (Hodgson).	Bii (Kepil),	Väyn (Hidgeon).	Eaglah.
	Tezp-tā-ko	(Goku yāl-sc-ko)	To'-pi-keng-mi .	. 198. We beat (Fast Jense)
******	Tenp-tä-ni	(Gå-ni yāl-ni) .	Tom-ne-m	. 169. You best : Fast Tesse)
******	Teup-tā-me	(Gumikāgā jāl-di) .	Te'-po-me-m	. 190. They bent Past Tense)
Kongi ker-tong tuwo	. Teup-songo bwang-nga .	Ång-å yom-thata	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	191. I am beating.
Kongā ker-tong tuwāš	. Temp-sôngo bwāk-ti	Ång-å yom-thudu	•	192 I was beating.
Konga keru	. Teup-tong	Āngā yam-dam-thiyo .	·	193. I had beater.
Kongā keru-nā .	. Teumne chabū	Ang-a yommi chaptabala .	******	194. I may beat.
Kongë kereyanë .	. Teub-ū	Äng-å yom-se	To'-mi	. 195. I shall beat.
101 101	Teub-i	(Gāni yālnā) .	Tc'-mi	. 196. Then wilt beat.
*** ***	Tenb-i	(Gukigi yilm)	To'-mi	. 197. He will beat,
***	Teup-ki	(Go-kāg-ā yal-ku)	To'-pe-m	. 195. We shall beat.
*** ***	Teum-ni	(Gā-ni yāl-ni)	Top-ne-m	. 199. You will beat.
*** ***	Teum-me	(Gumi-kig-ā yilai)	To'-me-m	200. They will beat.
Kong keram chhuwe	Go teupcho dyum	Āng-ā yòm-ta		201. I should beat.
Kong keram tuu .	Teumyi	Ång-å yom-simidoita .	To'-mu-m	202. I am beaten.
Kong keram too .	Tenpti	Ång-å a-yom-na	Top-sung-mi	203. I was beaten.
Kong keram tayohola	Teumyi	Ārg-ā a-yum-ta mihai .	To'-mu-m	204. I shall be beaten.
Kong khā-to	Di-ngi	Ång khus-ta	Lā-ngo-m	205. I go.
in khā-to	Di-y6	Ānā khus-in	La'-la-m	206. Thou goest.
Cho khā-te	D1	Um khus-thing-tu	La'-l2-m	207. He goes.
****	Di-ks	(Goe läksbil)	Lā'-ke-m	208. We go.
*****	Di-ni	(Gāni lawni)	Li-ne-m	209. You go.
••••••	Di-me	(Gumikigi lawmi)	Li-me-m	210. They go.
Cong khi-to	Dj-ti	Ånga khuchum-thiyo	Li-sung-mi	211. I went.
in khā-te-yo ·	Di-16	Ānā khuchum-ihiyo	La'-la-m	212. Thou wentest.
Cho khi-to	Di-4a ,	Um klachum-thiyo	La'-h-m	213. He west.
hot gas	Di-k-tä-ko	(Go-ku lok-to-kol)	La'-ki-kang-mi .	214 We went

English.	Dhimil (Hodgson).	Thāmi (Darjeeling).	Limbu (Nepal),	Yākhā (Darjeeling).
215. You went	Nyal hadā-hi-nyal		Kheni k'-pēg-i	
216. They went	Ü-bal hadē-hi	;·····	Khunchhi mē-pē	.*****
217. Go	Hadē	Yāā	. Pēgē	Khyā
218. Going	Hade-katang	Yenchhā	Pég-lō-pōt	Khep-ma-nga
319. Gone	Hade-kā	Yāhān	Pē	Khyā-nā
30. What is your name?.	Hai ming nang-ko ?	Nān-ko nāme hārā ? .	Khenë k'-ming hen?	In ning ilā ?
21. How old is this horse?	******	Hāni theare ghorā thā?	Kon on akhen tong-be yo-	Na on inkhok thappa-li
22. How far is it from here to Kashmir ?	******	Kā'-ining Kashmir hāni ā-lam thā ?	Kö-yō-nü Kashmir ākhen māng-bē?	Nā-nung Kasmir in māng-du-nā-lā?
23. How many sons are there in your father's house?	## ***	Nāng-ko āpā-ko nim-te chā- pāli hāni hoddu ?	mõ embechhā sā ākhen	Ombā-gā u-bāng-be ini metnyung-ba chiyā
24. I have walked a long way to-day.	, in see	Yāng ālam thāā yang-ngang	mē-wā ? Āin angā māngkhā lang khēgang.	ha-chi? Ka hen mang-du-lo lān nā.
25. The son of my uncle is married to his sister.	bee sie	Gai-ko u-chyā ā-pā-ko chā- ko bore dhā-ko chāmai nāmā thāhān.	chhā kū-sā-nū khūna kū-	Ā-gā āphāngā chiyā-gā bihā u-ngā-nu (?) le
26. In the house is the sad- dle of the white horse.	Dec big	Nim-te ubha ghorā-ko zin hoddu.	nūsā-rē kū-bībā pōk-sē. Him-mō phōdang-bā ōn-nīlē chīnen pōt.	nā. Pāng-be put-nā on yupmānā wait-nā.
27. Put the saddle upon his back.	,	Topu lukushā-te zin chhuho	Ön jongthü chînen phōt-chē	U-mising-be yapa thāksu (or yuksu).
28. I have beaten his son with many stripes.		To-ko chā-kai chābuke šī rehunu.	Angā khellē kū-sā sitot khēp hip-tū-ng.	Kā-ngā uchchya-go ko ngā pyāk mok-tu-ngā.
29. He is grazing cattle on the top of the hill.30. He is sitting on a horse	044 504	Dhāi hiw dani-te syā-meshā jahu-du.	Khūnē yakēk killē kū- jongthū pit-sāwat-hā kāmūsi.	Hunnā kungu som bastu-chi sopmā-ngā nā (?).
under that tree. 31. His brother is taller	846 498	Dhā dhā rukhā-ko pole-te ghora chiri-te lundu huddu.	Ön-nīlē kū-jongthū yūk-tū- rō-pōt khūne sing-nīlē kū- bhōsang wā.	Yo singā u-lāng-be on so be yung-yung-wa-nā.
than his sister. 32. The price of that is two	140 sec	Dhā-ko būbū to-ko humi bhandā aglo hoddu.	Kū-nūsā menchhemā-nūlē kū-nūsā embechhā kēmbā wā.	U-kā nuncha wemphā l chencha inchhā-mecha ket-nā (?).
rupees and a half. 33. My father lives in that		To-ko mole nisrupe āṭh anā	Khūnē kū-mēlung yāng nechhī ang kūkhēlē wā.	U-gā u-men yāng hichi h njāphelek (?).
small house.	944 AV 4	Gai-ko ā-pā ū che nim-te hoddu.	Angā a-m-bā nākhen hím chuk-pā-mö yūng.	Āppā yo-nā mik-nā pāng yung-me-nā.
5. Take those rapees from	290 too	Kā rupe to-kai piko .	Kön yäng-nin näkhen pi- rem-mē.	Nā-khā yāng hitnā pi
56. Beat him well and bind	444 447	Tyo rupe dhā-ini rāho	Khen yaug-ha khūnē-ō-nū phētemmē.	Hitnā-nung i-khā yāng aptu.
him with ropes.	*** ***	To-kā āprā-tini reho ani to- kai ahāk-pa-e chhiho.	Khen-nin chārik hip-temmē- ang sīkī-hā-rē khēkhemmē.	Hitnā ujumma (?) mak ikhong-khi-ba-ngā thu
well. 8. Walk before me	*** ***	Kuwain pangku kayo	Wodumpokwā-onū chūā-tin (or -nin) lotē.	Pokhāri-bāng māng-chā taksu.
9. Whose boy comes be-	*** ***	Gai-ko hābi-te chāyo Nā-ko libite su-ko hu-chā	Angā ā-togēč langkhēgē	Ā-gā agho āmā.
hind you ? G. From whom did you	******	rā-du ? Nāya to kutaini kinai-māng ?	Khenë k-ëgang āti-lē kū-sā phen ?	Ungā heksāng-be induchchyā āp-mā-ngā a
il. From a shopkeeper of the village.	P1+144	To dese-ko diware dokane	Kingnū?	Isa-bongā inu kā-nā ?
424		dekhin.	Pangphē pasalyā-onū ingu- ng-ba.	Tem-be-nā ikko toktok bangā.

Khambu (Darjeeling).	Bähing (Hodgson).	Rii (Nopal).	Viya (Hadgeen).	English
	Di-n-tā-ni . , .	(Gâni lawmnhāsi)	Li-ne-m	215. You went
	Dī-m-tā-me	(Gumi kigi la mdi)	Li-me-m	216. They went.
Châtte	Diwo	Khuchi	Id-la	217. Go.
Shā-to	Dība	Khus-thing-ti	*11. 527	218. Going
Chā-tā		Khuchü	l l l	219. Gone.
m ning uwe?		Ā-nā mā-wa ?	() () () () () () () () () ()	220. What is your name?
ngko ghora dek barkhā kae ?		Tam ghora hita bhurha	•••	221. How old is this horse
ikkā Kashmir dei to-me?		Tam-bi-ka Kashmir hita yākā gota ?	*****	222. How far is it from he to Kashmir?
m-pā-m khim-pi deppoye wāchchhā tuwe ?		Å-pa-po kim-hi hits lang- chu-mul mots?		213. How many some a there in your father
se konga oro bālpā lām dumo.		Ång kroun dama lam-thi-yo	s	house P 224. I have walked a los way to-day.
-bongkā u-chhā ām-chhā- lo khamlo nechho-lo		Wa-pho-po chu-kāi um-po wā-mi-chum-po biha		225. The son of my uncle married to his siste
hiyā ohhuwā. (him-pi omlopā ghorāng zin tuwe.		cahuka. Kim-ghobu wampu ghora- po kathi gota.		226. In the house is t anddle of the wh horse.
m-dos-to zin lochhah-te .		Um-po chhumru-bi kathi tu	*****	227. Put the saddle ap
Tho-m chhả nroto tiya kera.		Um-po u-chu ing-i dama koma yom-du.		228. I have beaten his a with many stripes
ihosiā bastu kompiio chāre-muyo,	•	Yākām-a rip-pu pākhā-li bhi-maisi-mul jolaimi.		229. He is grazing cattle the top of the hill
lungko sichham dokpu ghorā thenpikā tuchāc.	•••	Yākām ghorā che-bi yākām sa lim-hi mo-jata.		230. He is sitting on a hounder that tree.
m nechhe-pki mimchhi- pki nechho dungrepe.		Um-po wā-mi-chum likandu um-po wā-lanehu rippu mota.		231. His brother is tal than his sister.
(ungkomkā molingis-rong āduli dungdots.		Tam-po mul sak-pu soju rek-pu ana me gota.		232. The price of that two rupees and half.
-pë chimë khim-pi tuwe .		Wa-pu yakam pidam kim-bi mo-ta.	·····	233. My father lives in the small house.
ogko rong na-ko pi-te .		Tam soja yākām bi		234. Give this rapes to hi
long nāko-pkā kholong bāi-io.		Mom soju-mul yākām lum- buka pi-chi-ni.	* ***	235. Take those rupees fr him.
fungko ngālinota ker-te rībowā thupte.		Yākam duma yom-du riba- ā pudā.	003.100	236. Best him well and h him wish ropes.
Kuwip-ka kawo up-te .		Inār-laka kanku lētā	111426	237. Draw water from well.
).laiis-pi läm-dawä-te		Wa-lal-hi lam-thiya		238. Walk before me.
is-me äm-chhā e-dos-pa bān-tong tuwe?		A-yo-yo bi pik-pu a-bo-pe chu wa ?		239. Whose boy comes hind you?
ina mungko sa-pi kha-ta ?	D10 80**	Mone-a-bo-bi-ka ä-kidu ?	2 200 255	540. From whom did buy that ?
el-pā-kā dokān-pikā		Del-him tik-pu patya-la-h		241. From a shopkneps the village.

COMPLEX PRONOMINALIZED LANGUAGES.

WESTERN SUB-GROUP.

Most Tibeto-Burman languages spoken in Western Nepal and still further to the west are dialects of Tibetan. On and about the ethnographic watershed between Tibetan and Aryan there is dotted a series of small dialects which are of a different nature. They are mainly of a Tibeto-Burman stamp, but besides, they have those characteristic features which have been mentioned in connexion with the pronominalized languages of Nepal.

The dialects in question are found in the North of Almora, in Kanawar and in Kangra, Lahul, and Chamba.

The most characteristic dialect of this group is the so-called Kanāwrī, spoken in Kanawar. We there find more traces of the influence of a non-Tibeto-Burman substratum than in any other Himalayan dialect. This state of affairs is certainly in part due to the fact that I have been fortunate enough to secure the assistance of the Revd. J. Bruske, who has prepared an admirable list of Standard Words and Phrases for the purposes of this Survey.

Mr. Bruske's list makes it, so far as I can see, almost certain that the old language, the influence of which can still be traced in the Kanāw'rī dialect, must have belonged to the Mundā family. I shall draw attention to the principal facts of importance.

The Munda languages possess a characteristic set of consonants, the so-called semi-consonants. They are formed in the same way as the hard unaspirated consonants, but the enunciation is checked before the air passes out from the point of contact between the organs of speech engaged in the pronunciation of the consonant. These checked sounds have been represented by k', ch', t', p', respectively. Similar sounds appear to exist in Kanāw'rī, for in Mr. Bruske's list we find the word yunék', sun, where the final k is said to be only half pronounced. In the same way a checked t' exists in Manchāṭī, where I have found the form tot', to be, with the final t' half pronounced. The Rev. T. Grahame Bailey, who has lately taken up the study of Kanāw'rī, has kindly informed me that such semi-consonants are apt to be replaced by the corresponding soft sound, when their pronunciation is emphasized, just as is the case in the Munḍā languages.

Higher numbers are counted in twenties as in the Munda languages; thus, nish missāu sai, two twenties ten, fifty.

The personal pronouns have three numbers, and there are double forms of the dual and plural of the first person, just as is the case in Mundā. Thus g^* , I; $nish\bar{i}$, I and he; kishang, I and thou; ningān, I and they; kishang, I and you.

The most interesting feature of Kanāw'rī grammar is the verb. The subject can be indicated by adding pronominal suffixes, vis. g for the first and π for the second person. In a similar way a suffix $c\lambda$ is added if the object is of the first or second person. Compare the practice of Munda languages.

The details will be found in the ensuing pages. In this place it will be sufficient to mention that the characteristic features just mentioned are not Tibeto-Burman,

Kanāshī is the dialect spoken by a small tribe in the Bias valley. It is apparently closely related to Kanāwarī, though it makes a less complex impression.

A similar remark holds good with regard to the dialects spoken in Manchat in British Lahul and the adjoining parts of the Chamba State, and on the banks of the river Chandra. They will be dealt with under the heads of Manchāṭī, Chamba Lāhuļī and Ranglōī, respectively. With regard to Chamba Lāhuļī, new and good materials have been brought forward by the Revd. T. Grahame Bailey.

The Rangloi dialect connects Manchāṭi with Bunán, the dialect spoken on the banks of the river Bhaga. The Revd. H. A. Jaeschke, when mentioning the Bunán dialect in a paper published in the year 1865, stated that it was closely connected with Kanāwarī. The same holds good at the present day, though the materials forwarded for the purposes of this Survey are not sufficient for a full sketch of the dialect.

Connected dialects are further spoken in the north-west of Almora, where we find four dialects which will be dealt with under the heads of Rangkas, Dārmiyā, Chaudāngsī and Byāngsī, respectively. They are closely related, and more especially, the so-called Chaudāngsī and Byāngsī are almost one and the same dialect.

In all of them we find the same tendency to distinguish the person of the subject by means of a pronominal suffix added to the verb. Compare Chaudāngsī $s\bar{e}$ -n-s, struckest, where n is the suffix of the second person. The corresponding suffix of the first person is g. Compare the suffixes $ng\bar{a}$ and $n\bar{a}$ in the eastern sub-group.

The Almora dialects still present another characteristic feature which may be worth mentioning in this connexion, viz. the frequent use of reduplication in verbal bases. Compare Chaudāngsī $k\bar{u}$ - $k\bar{o}r$ - $t\bar{a}$, brought; syung- $t\bar{a}$ and $sy\bar{u}$ -syung- $t\bar{a}$, made. The latter example shows that the reduplication is not necessary to the form. It apparently only intensifies the meaning. We can therefore perhaps compare the reduplication in Mundā languages which is used in the same way. Compare Santālī dal, to strike; da-dal, to strike hard.

Further details will be found under the head of the different dialects.

The close connexion existing between all these forms of speech will be at once apparent from an inspection of the list of Standard Words and Phrases on pp. 532 and ff. The short table which follows registers some striking instances of coincidence:—

	Kanāw*rī.	Kanashi.	Manchātī.	Bunén.	Parada	70		_
			maicuați.	Dunan	Rangkas.	Dārmiyā.	Chaudangsī.	Byāngsī.
1	ŝŧ	ü	idi	tiki	tākā	tāko	tig	tig
2	nich	nich	(jut)	nyis	nist	nisū	nis	nisi
4	pä	pu	P ⁱ	pi	pi	pi	pi	pi
7	stish	•••	*yij	nyizhi	nhist	ળદેઓ	กรัธ	nis
Ear	(kanang)	red	reța	retsi	rach'	racko	rach	rach
Far	vark	(dur)	wai	wai	hvānm	vānam	vānam	vānam
Field	ni	rke	rhi	rig	rai	rê	ri	rai
Horse	rong	(ghora)	thang	shrangs	rhã	rång	räng	räng
Water	ti	ti	K	so-ti	ti	ti	ti	ti

The last word in the table is ti, water. According to Jaeschke this word also occurs as a loan-word in Tibetan. If it is not originally an Indo-Chinese word it might perhaps be compared with Mundā dak, Khmēr dik, etc., water.

The dialect spoken by the wild inhabitants of Askot Malia is called Janggali. i.e. jungle-speech. It will be dealt with in connexion with the other Almora dialects, though it does not belong to the same class. The reason is that the materials forwarded for the purposes of this Survey are so corrupt that it is impossible to say anything for certain about the affiliation of the dialect.

KANĀWARĪ.

Kanāw^{*}rī is the name of the dialect or dialects spoken in the Sutlej Valley from the junction of that river with the Spiti stream. The dialect is also known under the name of Tibarskad. In lower Kanawar it is said to be locally known under the names of Milchang or Milchanang, and Malhesti.¹

The number of speakers was estimated for the purposes of this Survey at 13,099. The corresponding figure at the last Census of 1901 was 19,525, of whom 19,493 were returned from Bashahr.

Two specimens and a list of Standard Words and Phrases in Kanāw'rī will be printed below. The first specimen is a version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son, for which I am indebted to the Revd. Grahame Bailey. I only received it when the Kanāw'ri section had been corrected for printing, and it has not, therefore, been possible to make full use of it for the grammatical sketch. It represents the central dialect of Kanāwrī, and, in most particulars, it corroborates the conclusions drawn from the forms occurring in the list. The second specimen is the statement of a witness. been prepared with sufficient knowledge of the language, and is very incorrect. It has been forwarded both in Devanagari and in transliteration. The two texts, however, often differ, and some passages are only contained in one of them. I have, however, not ventured to correct the spelling. Where the texts differ, I have when possible adopted the spelling which agrees with that followed in the list of words. The list itself has been very carefully prepared by the Revd. J. Bruske, of Chini, and, according to the Revd. T. Grahame Bailey, it represents the dialect spoken in Central Bashahr. It is so full and complete that it is almost possible to give a sketch of Kanāwarī grammar based on it alone. I have incorporated all the forms occurring in the list in the grammatical notes. On the other hand I have only reproduced the principal forms in the printed list on pp. 532 and ff.

Some additional lists have been forwarded from he district. They have not, however, been of much use. They mostly agree with the specimens, and they do not give any idea of the complicated system of Kanāw'rī grammar. The fact is worth mentioning because it shows how careful we must be in using the materials forwarded for the purposes of this Survey. It is quite possible and even probable that good materials, such as Mr. Bruske's list, would show that neighbouring dialects such as, e.g., the various dialects of Almora, possess a system of grammatical forms as richly developed as does Kanāw'rī.

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Cummegham, J. D.,—Notes on Moorcroft's Travels in Ladakh, and on Gerard's Account of Kundwar, including a general description of the latter district. Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. xiii, Part i, 1844, pp. 172 and ff., 223 and ff. Contains vocabularies, Kunawaree, etc.

¹ The Revd. T. Grahame Bailey informs me that Milehang or Milehanang is evidently Min-chhān or Min-chhānāng, names, or possibly nicknames, given to Kanāwirī by Kochi speakers. Tibarskad stands for Thebor-skadd, a name or nickname given by speakers of ordinary Kanāwirī to the dialect spoken far east in Kanawar just before the Tibetan area begins. This dialect is not intelligible to them, but is presumably a form of Kanāwirī. According to the same authority the word Kanāwirī should properly be written Kanaurī. The Kanaurīs themselves seem to call their language Kanōring skadd or Kanāwen-su skadd.

- CURRINGHAM, A.,—Ladak, physical, statistical, and historical, with notices of the surrounding countries.

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 Calcutta 1867. Appendix B contains the personal prenouns in Milchang, Appendix A the numerals in Tibarskad, Sumchu, etc.
- Diagn, A. H.,—The Kulu Dialect of Hindi: Some Notes on its grammatical Structure, with specimens of the songs and sayings current amongst the people, and a glossary. Lahore 1896. Contains a Kanáwari vocabulary on pp. 102 and ff.
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The remarks on Kanāw'rī grammar which follow are almost exclusively based on Mr. Bruske's list. I have, however, also drawn attention to the principal cases in which the specimens differ.

Pronunciation.—Mr. Bruske's list gives a good idea of the phonetical system of Kanāw'rī. O and e are both short and long. The short o often interchanges with a. The vowel a in g^{a} , I, etc., is described as something like the sound of e in French e. The sound of \bar{u} in $p\bar{u}$, four, is said to be something between the Latin u and oe.

Long and short vowels are often interchanged, and, in many cases, their length is quite indefinite.

No aspirated soft consonants occur in Mr. Bruske's list of words. The materials forwarded from the district, however, have instances both of gh and of jh. Aspirated and unaspirated hard consonants are apparently often interchanged. Thus, khim, house; $k\bar{s}m\cdot\bar{o}$, in the house, both in the list; chang, son, in the list, chhang in the specimens, and so forth. Th and t in the specimens often correspond to t in the list; thus, thus and tur, run. The cerebral sound is, at least in many cases, certainly the correct one. Sh and j are interchanged in $\bar{a}sh$ and $\bar{a}j$, goat. Hard and soft consonants sometimes interchange; thus, to and $d\bar{u}$, is, and so forth.

Compound letters are sometimes simplified; thus, $l\bar{e}$, Tibetan lche, tongue; lang, Tibetan (ba)glang, cow; khim, Tibetan khyim, house, and so forth. In other cases the compounds are preserved; thus, $sg\acute{u}i$ and $g\acute{u}i$, Tibetan dgu, nine; $kr\ddot{a}$, Tibetan skra, hair. The materials available are not sufficient for laying down definite rules.

The final k' in yunck', sun, is said to be only half pronounced. We have no detailed information about the use of such half-sounded letters in the dialect. It is probable that we have here to do with the so-called abrupt tone of Central and Western Tibetan. Mr. Bailey's specimen shows that this abrupt tone is of frequent occurrence. It has been marked by means of a 'after the syllable. The abrupt tone has been compared by Mr. Skrefsrud with the semi-consonants of Munda languages, and in the case of Kanawri it is not improbable that Munda influence has been at work.

We have no information about the existence of other tones in the dialect.

The accent has been marked in the list of words by means of a 'over the accented syllable. Thus, dammis-w, to good men. The accent usually remains on the base. There are several exceptions to the rule, but we are not as yet able to discern the laws regulating the matter.

Article.—There is no article. The numeral id, one, often in the abbreviated form i, is used as an indefinite article; thus, id ideiā, a shopkeeper; i mi-ū, to a man. The initial in id-mā, mother; id-tē, elder brother, and so forth, is not an article, but a prefix as in Western Tibetan.

Nouns.—Gender is distinguished in the common way by using different words or by adding words denoting the sex. Thus, dámas, bull; lang, cow: kyō-ráng, horse; mánṭ-rang and gónmā, mare: āsh, he-goat; bakór, she-goat, and so forth.

Number.—There are three numbers, the singular, the dual, and the plural. The dual is indicated by the addition of the numeral nish, two; thus, nish $b\bar{c}b\bar{a}$, two fathers. Sometimes also the plural suffix is added; thus, nish $b\bar{c}b\bar{a}n$, two fathers.

The plural is not indicated when it appears from the context. The usual plural suffix is op, or, after vowels, n; thus, $ch\bar{\imath}med$ -on, daughters; $b\bar{o}b\bar{a}$ -n, fathers; $m\bar{\imath}$ -n, men. Other sources give \bar{a} , oblique $\bar{a}n$, instead; thus, $ch\bar{\imath}met$ - \bar{a} , daughters; $-r\bar{a}ng$ - \bar{a} , horses. This shows that the final n cannot be distinctly sounded. After vowels we sometimes find $g\bar{a}$, and sometimes no termination; thus, $\bar{a}p\bar{a}$ - $g\bar{a}$, fathers; $\bar{a}p\bar{a}$ - $g\bar{a}n$ - \bar{u} , of fathers; $m\bar{\imath}$, men; $m\bar{\imath}n$ - \bar{u} , of men, and so forth. Compare do-gon, they, and Tibetan kun, all.

The existence of a dual in the dialect will be more apparent when we proceed to deal with pronouns. It is not a feature of Tibeto-Burman languages, and it must therefore have been introduced from without. It seems probable that it is due to the influence of an older population which has been absorbed by the Bhōṭiās. In this and in other characteristics, in which it differs from other Tibeto-Burman forms of speech, Kanāwrī agrees with the Muṇḍā languages, and it therefore seems allowable to infer that the old population which has influenced Kanāwrī grammar belonged to the Muṇḍā stock.

Case.—The nominative and the accusative are not usually distinguished by means of any suffix. The dative is formed by adding \bar{u} or u, and this form is often also used as an accusative. Thus, $b\bar{o}b\bar{a}-\bar{u}$, to a father; g^a-s $d\bar{b}u$ cháng- \bar{u} gob tóng-shids to, I have beaten his son (lit. to his son) much; $g\bar{a}-\bar{u}$ $n\bar{u}-u$ pishtíng den shed, put the saddle upon his back.

The subject of transitive verbs is usually put in the case of the agent, which is formed by adding the suffix s; thus, chang-s (or chhang-es) lán-shits, son-by given, the son has given. The same form is also used as an instrumental; thus, b*shes, with ropes.

The specimens do not always use the suffix \bar{u} in order to form a dative, but often add a postposition pany instead; thus, $b\bar{a}w\bar{a}$ -pany, to the father.

The suffix of the ablative is dagts; thus, $b\bar{b}b\bar{a}-dagts$ or $b\bar{o}b\bar{a}-\bar{u}$ dagts, from a father. The real suffix is probably ts, instead of which we occasionally find ch; thus, kim-rim-ch, from the property, in the first specimen.

The suffix of the genitive is u, or \bar{u} . The list has both forms; the specimens only give \bar{u} . Thus, $b\bar{c}b\bar{d}$ -u, of a father; $r\acute{a}ng$ - \bar{u} , of the horse.

The suffix of the locative is \bar{o} ; thus, $kim-\bar{o}$, in the house.

Other relations are indicated by means of postpositions. Such are den, on; nyums and nyúms-kō, behind; oms and oms-kō, before; tang, with, to; yūtúng, under, all occurring in the list.

In the specimens some additional postpositions occur such as ding (and dang), to, with; rang and ra, near, with; ampi, before, with, and so forth.

Adjectives.—Adjectives precede the noun they qualify in the nominative. Thus, dam mi, a good man. Comparison is expressed by adding s, i.e. probably the suffix of the ablative, to the compared noun and retaining the adjective unchanged.

Thus, nñ-u baiā án-u ringsē-s lamas dū, his brother own sister-from tall is, his brother is taller than his sister. Note also toén-ū rāngk, all-of high, highest.

Numerals.—The numerals are given in the list of words. It will be seen that it, one, agrees with Manchāṭī idi, id, etc. The remaining ones are most closely connected with the forms in use in Manchāṭī and the Almora dialects. Compare pū, four; Manchāṭī and Chaudāngsī pī; stish, Manchāṭī nyij, Chāudāngsī nīs, seven; gūi, Manchāṭī kū, Chaudāngsī gvī, nine; sai, Manchāṭī sā, Chaudāngsī chī, ten. Note nish nizzāū sai, fifty, lit. two twenties ten; ngā nizzā, hundred, lit. five twentica. This method of counting higher numbers in twenties is peculiar to the Muṇḍā languages. It also occurs in Manchāṭī, Chamba Lāhulī, the Rangkas dialect of Almora, etc.

Pronouns.—The personal pronouns in Kanāw'rī have developed a richly varied system of different forms. Not only are there respectful forms and ordinary forms of the second person singular, but the personal pronouns have different forms for all three numbers, and in the case of the dual and the plural of the first person there are two different sets of forms, one including and one excluding the party addressed. Both those latter characteristics, the existence of different forms for all three numbers, and the use of double sets of forms in the dual and plural of the first person, are distinctly Muṇḍā, while they are in entire disagreement with Tibeto-Burman principles.

The principal forms of the personal pronouns will be seen from the table which follows:—

		SINGULAR.		D	TAIL.	PLUBAL	
		Ordinary,	Respectful.	Exclusive.	Inclusive.	Ezclasive.	Inclusive
1st pers. nom.		9*	•••	níshi	káskang	ningán	kishang
instr.	•	g**		níchi-s	késhang-s	ningdu-s	bishung-e
gen.	-	ang		થકોકોન્ડ-થ	káskang-a	ningan-u	kiskang-n
2nd pers. nom.		ka	К		kishi		kindu
instr.	-	ka-s	bi-s		kicht-s		kindn-s
gen.	•	ka-11	ki-n		kishi-u		kindh-u
3rd pers. nom.		do		dð-s ung	P44	dógon	
instr.		do-s		dō-sung-s	***	dógon-s	
gen.		do-n		dő-sung-u	***	dogon-u	

Several slightly differing forms occur in the specimens. They will, however, be easily understood. Postpositions are apparently added to the genitive. Thus, $\bar{a}ng-\bar{u}$, to me; $\bar{a}ng$ den, on me.

A reflexive pronoun is an-v, an-o, own.

Demonstrative pronouns are je, this; we, that.

Interrogative pronouns are hat, who? t^*t , what; $t\hat{e}$, how great? $t\hat{e}r\hat{e}$, how much? how many? $t\hat{u}$, why? The specimens have $t\hat{k}\hat{u}$, what? $t\hat{k}\hat{u}$, why? The specimens also furnish the indefinite pronoun hairs, by anyone.

There are no relative pronouns. Relative clauses are apparently formed by using the interrogative pronouns. Thus, $th\ddot{o}$ -döng ang $do\ddot{a}$ $t\ddot{o}$ do kan- \ddot{o} , whatever me near-is that thine; kan chhang, $h\ddot{a}is$, that son whom-by. It is evident that the relative words in such phrases are no real relatives but belong to the interrogative pronouns.

Verbs.—The Kanāw rī verb possesses a richly developed system of different forms.

Intransitive verbs are comparatively simple. Transitive verbs, on the other hand, can assume several various forms. The base alone, in connexion with tense suffixes and personal terminations, is used when the verb has an ordinary object. Thus, $n\bar{n}-n\bar{u}$ if $jigpo\ tong$, him-to well beat, beat him well. If the object, on the other hand, is a personal pronoun of the first or second person, ch is inserted between the base and the termination. Thus, tong-ch, beat me; $bando\ t\bar{a}-ch-iny$, servant make-me. In the specimens, however, we occasionally find forms such as $\bar{a}ng-\bar{u}$ tong-mig, instead of tong-ch-mig, in order to strike me.

The verb ran-mig, to give, is in a similar way only used when the indirect object is of the third person. In other cases a base $k\bar{e}$ is used instead. Thus, $ky\bar{o}$, give me; $k\bar{e}$ -im gyāch, to give to me was proper, you ought to give me.

In addition to those forms, transitive verbs have a third base which is used with a reflexive or reciprocal meaning. It is formed by inserting sh between the base and the terminations. Thus, $t\acute{o}ng-shi-mig$, to beat each other, or, to beat oneself. This third base is constructed like an intransitive verb, *i.e.*, the subject is not put in the case of the agent, but remains in the nominative. Thus, $g^a t\acute{o}ng-sh\~{o} tog$, I am beating myself; but $g^a-s t\acute{o}ng-ch\~{o} tog$, I beat thee, or, you.

These different bases are not formed in accordance with Tibeto-Burman grammatical principles. Corresponding forms are, on the other hand, quite common in Muṇḍā languages. The verb of the typical Muṇḍā dialects such as Santālī, Muṇḍārī, and so on, incorporates the direct and the indirect object in the verbal form by means of pronominal infixes, and it has developed different bases to denote the passive and the middle. Compare Santālī, dal-e-a-e, he strikes him; dal-iñ-a-e, he strikes me; dal-ok'-a-e, he strikes himself, and so forth. It seems probable that we are here again confronted with an instance of the influence exercised on Kanāw¹rī by an old Muṇḍā population.

In addition to such personal terminations there are also some respectful suffixes, vic. my for the first and second persons, and sh for the third. Thus, ang ome pai-ny, please walk before me; ang bobd nu gátots kim-ō tôsh-ō tō-sh, my father that small house-in living is.

A suffix ch is used in the first and second persons dual and plural, and also in the third person of the past. It occurs almost exclusively in the list, and no detailed rules about its use are given.

Verb substantive.—The usual base of the verb substantive is to, corresponding to Tibetan 'a-dug-pa or sdod-pa. In the past tense we also find a fuller form $t\bar{o}k\bar{c}$. Only a present and a past are formed from this base. Other tenses are supplied from the bases hach, to become; ni, to remain; $t\bar{o}sh$, to sit, to be. Instead of to we also find du or $d\bar{u}$. A base i occurs in $m\bar{a}$ -ig, I am not, in the first specimen.

The following are the full forms of the base to with the personal terminations added:—

	Present.						Pasy.				
				Ordinary.	Respectful	Or	dinary.	Res	ectfol.		
Sing.	1.	•	•	to-g		tē-g ;	tố kê-g				
	2,		•	to-n	to-ny	tē-n;	tők e n	těny ;	tökë-ny		
	3.	•		ŧō	to-sh	toch;	tókē	tē-sh ;	tõkē-≥h		
Dual	l. exclus.			to-ch	***	tē-cl.;	tốk i -ch		171		
	1. inclus.			tó-nmē		tē;	tố kē	1	•••		
	2.			to-ch	•••	të-ch ;	tökë-ch		***		
	3.			ŧō	to-sh	to-ch;	t ố k ẽ	tē-sh;	tökë-sh		
Plur.	l. exclus.			to-ch	to-ny	të-ch ;	tókē-ch	tē-ny ;	tốkë-ny ¹		
	1. inclus.		\cdot	tó-nmē	•••	tē;	tőkē		***		
	2.			to-ck	to-ny	të-ch ;	tõk ä- ch	tē-ny ;	tố kể-ny		
	3.			tō	to-sh	to-ch;	tõkē	tësh ;	tốkē-sk		

In the past tense there is also a form to-ts, which is used in all persons and numbers. Instead of tosk we find tock in tong-shids tock, I have besten.

Finite verb.—The terminations of finite verbs are the same as those used in the verb substantive. It should, however, be borne in mind that the personal terminations are not necessary, and they are rarely used in the specimens.

Present time.—The usual present tense is formed by adding the present of the verb substantive to the participle ending in \bar{o} . Thus g^* $bi\bar{t}$ - \bar{o} to-g, I am going, I go; ka-s tong-ch- \bar{o} to-n, thou art beating me; lodo-du, is saying, and so forth. This form is properly a present definite. A present is also formed by adding the personal terminations immediately to the participle; thus, $shi\bar{o}$ -g, I die; $z\bar{a}o$, they eat.

¹ to-ny, etc., with ningan, we, is said to be used indiscriminately with to-ch, etc.

Past time.—The suffix of past time is apparently i or \bar{e} . The personal terminations are mainly the same as in the present. In the third person, however, we find a new suffix gy. Thus, $b\bar{i}$ -gy, he went. The table which follows gives the full forms of $b\bar{i}$ -mig, to go, and tong-mig, to strike. The dual agrees with the plural, except with regard to the respectful forms of the two first persons, which are not used in the dual:—

	SING	ULAR.			Pr	URAL.	
	1st person.	0-1		1st pe	rson.		
	тас Балаоп.	2nd person.	3rd person.	Exclus.	Inclus.	2nd person.	3rd person.
Ordinary .	b ₹- €-g	bī-ên	bīgy	bī'ē-ch	bī'-ē	bī'-ē-ch	bīgy
Respectful .	***	bī-ēny	bī-ē-sh	bī-ē-ny	•••	bī-ē-ny	bī'-ē-sh
Ordinary .	tóng-ig	tóng~in	tóng-ā	tóng-ich	tóngy ē	tóng-ich	tóng-ā
Bespectful .	***	tóng-iny	tóngish	tóng-iny	***	tóng-iny	tóng-ish
Ordinary .	tóng-ch ig	tóng-chin	tóng-chigy	tóng-c hi-ē ch	tóng-chī-ē	tóng-chł-ēch	téng-chē
Respectful .	•••	tóng-chiny	tóng-chī-ēsh	tóng-chi-ēny	•••	tóng-chī-ēny	tóng-chi-ēs

Tong-shi-g, I struck myself, and so forth, is conjugated like tong-chi-g, I struck thee.

Other forms occurring in the specimens are $lod\bar{a}$, said; $ran\bar{a}$, gave; $d\bar{a}$ -shi-ch, he and I quarrelled with each other; $ch\bar{e}n$ -s sunch $l\bar{a}n$ - \bar{a} , all-by thought made, all wondered.

A compound past is formed from a past participle ending in shids; thus, tong-shids-to, having beaten am, I have beaten; tong-shids-toch, I had beaten. In the second specimen shid is used instead of shids, and this form usually has the meaning of an ordinary past. Thus, lō-shid, he said; kē-shid, gave to me; tong-shid, he struck, and so forth.

The specimens furnish instances of several other forms of the past.

The participle ending in \bar{o} is often used as a past; thus, $l\bar{a}n$ - \bar{o} , did; bi- \bar{o} , went.

S is added in forms such as hāchi-s, became. This s is also the suffix of a participle. See below.

Periphrastic forms are $gyau-du\bar{e}$, he was wishing; $lano-du\bar{e}$, was making; $thas\bar{o}$ $d\bar{s}$, he heard, and so forth.

Future.—The future is formed by adding the present tense of the verb substantive to the base. Thus, tóng-tog, I shall strike; bi-to-g, I will go, and so forth. If the object of a transitive verb is a pronoun of the first or second person, and if the verb is used with a reflexive or reciprocal meaning, to is replaced by cho or sho, respectively. Thus, ka-s tong-cho-n, thou wilt strike me, or, us; dógon tong-sho, they will beat each other, and so forth. Other bases ending in ch or sh also form their future in the same manner; thus, kách-og, I shall become; tósh-og, I shall remain, and so forth.

The future is commonly used as a conjunctive. Forms such as $hachids-g\bar{e}\bar{a}$, I may become; ni-ds- $g\bar{e}\bar{a}$, I may be; g^a -s tong-shids- $g\bar{e}\bar{a}$, I may beat, are almost only used in prayers, and then in the third person singular only.

Imperative.—The base alone is used as an imperative. Personal terminations are added in the respectful form, in the dual and the plural. Thus, $b\bar{\imath}\bar{u}$, go; respectful

bīny; dual bīch; plural bīch, respectful bīny. Similarly we find zā, eat; tosh, respectful toshiny, sit, and so forth. Irregular are jarā, respectful jany, come; dānyā, plural dēnich, stand; tūrat, respectful tūrány, run; kyō, respectful kēny, plural kēch, give me, or us (but ran, respectful rany, etc., give to him, or them); tsud, respectful tsuny, dual and plural tsuch, draw; dab, respectful damny, dual and plural dab-ch, draw (water from the well), and so forth.

Transitive bases have the same variety of forms as in the case of finite tenses. Thus, ki-s tong-ny, please strike; tong-ch, beat me; kishis tong-chick, beat me you two, kindn tongshich, beat ye each other, and so forth.

Such forms are used when the imperative refers to something which should be done immediately. If the action is to be performed in future after having done something else, the imperative is formed by adding $r\bar{s}$, respectful rany; dual rack, plural rack, respectful rany to the base. The accent is somewhat irregular. The table which follows has been taken from Mr. Bruske's list and will not be reproduced in the list itself:—

	Si	Detlar.	DEAL.	Pr	URAL.
	Countrions.	Respectful.		Common.	Respectful
go	bí-rā	bi-rány	ki-rack	bi-ruck	bi-rány
et	sã-r≧	sā-rény	så-raci	sā-rack	zā-rény
it	ticki-rā	töcki-rény	tāskī-rack	tšeki-rack	tõeki-rány
OBS	jā-rē	jā-rany	j ä-r ack	já-reck	ја-тепу
eat	tóng-rã	tong-rány	téng-rack	tóng-rack	tong-rang
eat me	tóng-chi-ri	tong-chi-riny	tóng-chi-rach	tóng-ohl-rach	tong-chi-rany
tand	dênî-rê	dini-rány	dāuš-rack	dēni-rack	dēnī-rány
lie	ehi-rā	shi-rény	skiráck	nhì-rách	shī-rány
i ve	rán-rā	rez-rézy	ren-rácă	ran-ráck	rax-rány
give me	ké-re	kō-rány	bź-rack	ké-rack	ki-rany
run	turā-rā	turá-rany	tùrấ-rack	lurā-rack	turë-rany
ake	ús-rā	es-rény	au-réck	un-rách	un-rény
nind	teú-rē	teu-rány	tsp-ráck	tev-rick	teu-râny
iraw	dáb-+ā	deb-rány	dáb-rack	₫åb-reck	dab-rėny
walk	pai-rā	pai-rény	pai-ráck	pai-réck	pai-rány

There are no instances in the materials available of a negative imperative.

Verbal nouns.—The usual suffix of the verbal noun is m, or im; thus háchim, to become; rogim, to feed; bim, to go. The suffix ig is often added. Thus, tón-mig, to be; tóng-shi-m-ig, to beat oneself. Such forms are probably infinitives of purpose.

Participles.—A present participle is formed by adding the suffixes \bar{o} and s, and a corresponding past by adding shids; thus, $b\bar{\imath}\bar{o}$, going; $h\bar{a}chis$, being; $t\acute{o}ng\text{-}chi\text{-}s$, beating me, or us, or thee, or you; $t\acute{o}shis$, sitting; $t\acute{o}ng\text{-}shids$, beaten, who has beaten, and so forth.

Conjunctive participles appear to be formed by reduplicating the base; thus, tong-tong, beating; $bi-b\bar{\imath}$, having gone, and so forth. In dorare \bar{a} , having run, the reduplication appears to take place in the interior of the word.

Passive voice.—There is no passive voice. Passivity is sufficiently indicated by the absence of the suffix of the agent after the subject.

Negative particle.—The negative particle is a prefixed ma; thus, ma-ni, it is not, no.

Order of words.—The usual order of words is subject, object, verb. Qualifying words precede the qualified ones.

For further details the student is referred to the specimens which follow, and to the list of Standard Words and Phrases on pp. 532 and ff.

[No. 37.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

KANAWABI.

SPECIMEN I.

(Rev. T. Grahame Bailey, 1907).

lodā', 'babā bawa Zigits chhang-es ano miū nish chhang dūe'. father sons were. Little son-by own father-to said, One man-of two ranā'. diāroch keō.' Dos anō bantha Gato hiza (or hissā) Few days from give-me.' Him-by own part gave. 1744 bio', dong wamang zoma. lanā' workiō niums zigits chhang-es tsuē aņö went, there together made far son-bu alllittle 02013 mulkiö kharts lani' õb shungā'. Dos tsoë mā√ā kāmang ano all spending made that country-in work-in own property finished. Him-by hadō maits ollō dō bī-bī mū-lī pöpö, angkālang having-gone altogether nothing-is straitened having-arrived, he that sūra duā' (or dā') bio': dos anö rīwanō hidu (or toshizea) mulkiö went; him-by own fields-to pigs dweller near country-of gyau-due', sūras rokshimi kholop zāmig Dō an shēdā. rogim wishing-was, self to-eat Hе pigs feeding-for husks to-feed sent. kadā' dog lodo-dū, 'ang bawā doā' vāt ma ranā'. Tserep anyone-by that not gave. Little memory brought then saying-is, 'my father near g' jöng pētang pöng stang rotē zão, mozūrī dū', up-to bread eating, I here fill how-many labourers are, belly do-pong lo-tag, "bawa, Parmeshuras bitog Ga ang bawa döng God's "father, him-to will-say, I my father there will-go die. māig. Angu nūkrī g kan chhang hachi läik kīn pāp lan-lan Me servant soorthy not-am. sin having-done I thy to-be 30% wowr Do chhang warkio due', dong bio'. tachiny." Sorshia anō howa place-me." Having-arisen own father there went. That far was. 80% tanga'. kotsang tsalo-dū' dāiā (or dörareā') aņö chhangō bawas evil (miserable) thinking-is having-run 090% own father-by 9aso. 'bowa. rana'. Chhangas ano bonu lodo-dū'. kakts tsumä' nanū neck-to keld own father-to saving-is. father. kies Son-by gave. kan chhang hachi lāik maie. Parmēshuras kin lan-lan g* pāp thy to-be worthy God's sin having-done I **\$0%** not-am. WOHT lodo-dů', 'tsuēnu dam chhugā totoā (or tôtā') phoginy: Bonas nükrenu Father-by servants-to saying-is, 'all-than good clothes having-extracted put-on;

gūdau pratsau mundī sheny, bangō shpon sheny, yokshīd āzh kaka hand-on finger-on ring send, feet-on shoes send, fattened goat having-brought zātony khusi hachiny (or nītiny); ningā shun-mig thū, ang chhang to-kill we shall-eat shall-be; merry why, my 80n shī-shī toke', hē shunggī (shonggī) hachis (hachas); shō bī-bī toke'. having-died was, again became; lost having-gone was, alive porēdā.' hē Dos khusī lano-duc'. again was-obtained.' Him-by happiness making-was.

Dō tēg atē rīmō dûye'. Kimu nērangō būde-rang (or būdyēnen) His big brother field-in was. House-to near coming-on bazetsu skad thasō-dū'. Ī nukrū kuku do-pöng iô-dū', bazgi music sounding-of noise hearing-is. One servant-to having-called him-to asking-is, 'thö hache'?' Nukrös lodo-dū', 'kan dzigits atē bēudā'. Kan bowās 'tohat became?' Servant-by saying-is, 'thy little brother came. Thy father-by yokshīd āzhu' shubā', do tenges shubo-du', āņo chhang dam porereā'.' fattened goat killed, that for killing-is, own son well having-obtained.' dukhang tang-tang kumo bīm ma-gyau-dû', dō bon grieved having-looked house-in to-go not-wishing-is, his father Dö Hе bībī anu chhangu somzāeo-dū'. Dos lodo-dū', 'gas outside having-gone own son-to causing-to-understand-is. Him-by saying-is, 'me-by boshang kan kamang lan-lan, kas angu tērangī bokharu how-many years thy work having-done, thee-by me-to ever-even she-goat chhang mā kē-kē ang koneā rang khusi lan-tog. Kan young not having-given-to-me I friends with happiness make-shall. Thy chhang tērang bödā', hāis kan mālā pātaranu udācā', đō son when came, whom-by thy property harlots-to wasted, thee-by him tenges yokshid azh shub-shub.' Bonös lodo-du', 'chhang, ka ta for fattened goat killed.' Father-by saying-is, 'son, thou then straight-on ang rang ēkē ton; thödöng ang doā' to'. do kano. Khusi me with together art; whatever me near is, that thine. Happiness lan-mig khusi hachi-mig dam toke'; ṭhū, kan bāiā shī-shī toke', to-make merry to-become good was; why, thy brother having-died was, hē shönggī hāchis; shō bī-bī toke'; $h\bar{e}$ porēdā'.' again alive became; lost having-gone was, again was-obtained.

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY, TIBETO-HIMALAYAN BRANCH.

KANAWARI.

SPECIMEN II.

(DISTRICT KANAWAR.)

nāmang Mādhō: bawā-ù Ang nāmang Sādhō: zāt kundas; MyMādhō; name father-of name Sādhō; caste kanet: bashchyā. Mudēi-s äng-den Kostam-pi ārkolang dawa lān-shid. G*-5 Koti-in inhabitant. Plaintiff-by me-on false complaint gave. He-by mudēi-pang mā tong-shid. Nishī anen-u mājang mā dā-shich. plaintiff-to struck. I-and-he notown among not quarrelled-with-each-other. biting-den jagrā tōkē. G. panchō-pang Ang ī pbī-phī nāpā wall-on Myquarrel 1008. I arbitrators-to taking there one shē-mig bi-shid. simang Ningā[n] biting-ü-den biting-ū dak pu-shid. to-make delimitation went. We then wall-at wall-of reached. kērā; āng-ū ningān-ū gāling terang tong-mig thurera budā. mudēī-s me-to to-strike us-to abuse gave; then running came. plaintiff-by Maṇāữ-maṇāữ (i.e. an-u an-u) kim-õ bi-shid. G*-8 suñch lān-ā. Chēn-s house-to Own-own went. Me-by thought made. All-by bi-shid. Hāl byang-byang āng kim-ö thurera āng nā-pāks lī fearing house-to went. Haste running my my therefrom also bī-bī shum dyār tö-tö-brin lāgēdā. Ang kim-ō bang-o thukar going days senseless three was-applied. Myhowse-to hurt foot-to kësö nālish 'ang-den gāling Mudēi-s sunchà-shì, dākchēk. abuse giving-of complaint Plaintiff-by thought-having, * ## e-0# lay. ang-den shë-shid. dāwā rökyāim ārkölang nālish Ang-ū lān-tog,' āng complaint put. 186-0B Me-to complaint to-stop false give-will,' my gāling kē-shid; nālish lan-tok. lī do-ŭ ga also complaint give-will. that-of I gave; abuse he

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

My name is Mādhō; my father's name Sādhō; my caste Kanet; my village Koti. The plaintiff has lodged a false complaint against me. I did not strike him. He and I have no quarrel with each other. I have a quarrel concerning a wall, and I had gone there with the arbitrators in order to settle the limits. When we came to the wall, the plaintiff abused us and came running to strike me. Everybody wondered at it. All then went home, and I also returned thence, much alarmed. I ran very fast, and my foot was hurt. During three days I lay senseless at home. The plaintiff feared that I should lodge a complaint against him for abuse, and filed a false complaint in order to stop it. He abused me, and I am going to accuse him.

KANĀSHĪ.

Kanāshī is the dialect spoken in a glen within the Bias valley, containing only the village, called by outsiders Malāna and by the villagers themselves Mālānī. According to Mr. Diack, 'the glen is a very deep and narrow one, extending from the mountain ridge (at that point impassable or nearly so) forming the tri-junction of the Bias, Chenab, and Spiti watersheds down to the valley of the Parbati, a large tributary of the Bias from the east. At the point of junction between the Malana stream and the Parbati the sides of the glen are steeply precipitous and the path zig-zagging from one side to the other is extremely difficult. The only other ways of entering the glen are by very high and somewhat difficult passes between it and the Bias valley on the one hand and the Parbati valley on the other. The village of Malana is thus very isolated, and to this isolation doubtless is due the preservation of the ancient and curious dialect spoken there.'

The number of speakers has been estimated for the purpose of this Survey at 980. The dialect was not separately returned at the last Census of 1901.

AUTHORITIES-

HARCOUET, A. F. P.,—The Himalayan districts of Kooloo, Lahoul, and Spiti. London 1871. Contains a Malauna vocabulary on pp. 379 and ff.

Fanshawe, H. C.,—Kulu-Language spoken at Malana. Panjab Notes and Queries. Vol. i, Nos. 376, 471, 554. Compare Mr. Tribe's notes in Nos. 806, 879, and 958.

DIACK, A. H.,—The Kulu Dialect of Hindi: some notes on its grammatical structure, with specimens of the songs and sayings current amongst the people, and a glossary. Lahore 1896, pp. 99 and f. Contains a Kanashi vocabulary on pp. 102 and ff.

I am indebted to Mr. G. C. L. Howell, Assistant Commissioner of Kulu, for two specimens and a list of Standard Words and Phrases in Kanāshī. These materials are far superior to anything that has hitherto been published about the dialect, and the remarks which follow are entirely based on them. Mr. Howell writes that he has not as yet been able to make a thorough study of Kanāshī, and that several points in pronunciation and grammar still remain uncertain.

Name of the language.—Mr. Howell points out that the word Kanāshī is stated to be derived from Kanāsh, the name of an unknown region.

Pronunciation.—The materials have been noted down in Roman and vernacular characters. Among the latter versions there is one written in the Tibetan alphabet, which in many respects seems to be superior to the rest, and which I have therefore mainly followed.

Mr. Howell states that he cannot hear any aspirates in the dialect, but that his clerks say they can. The state of things is probably the same as in Tibetan, where unaspirated mutes are much less aspirated than in English, and the corresponding aspirates more like the English unaspirated sounds. I have therefore introduced aspirates where the Tibetan text gives them.

Cerebral letters have likewise been introduced from the texts in Tibetan character. The same is the case with the palatal ny, for which the Romanized text has n.

The dialect possesses semi-consonants in words such as tek', great; buratak', comes; daj', to him, and so on. The materials available are, however, still insufficient for giving detailed rules about their use, and I have not attempted to note them consistent by

The palatal sounds <u>ts</u>, <u>tsh</u>, dz, and zh all exist. They are, however, often confounded in the texts. Thus the suffix of the dative occurs as uj, uzh, and uz.

R, r and l are sometimes interchanged; compare chari, forty; sora and sola, sixteen; khalas and kharas, standing, etc.

Tones and accent.—Tones are said to be a prominent feature of the dialect. It has not, however, been possible to lay down rules for their use. The accent is usually thrown as far back as possible.

Articles.—There are no articles, but i, the shortest form of the first numeral, is often used as a kind of indefinite article; thus, i marshang-ka-di, with a man.

Nouns.—Gender is distinguished in the common way, by using different words or adding terms denoting the sex; thus, marshang, man; betrī, woman: chho, son; chīme, daughter; rāng, horse; mīch rāng, mare; kui, dog; mīch kutī, bitch.

Number.—There are two numbers, the singular and the plural. The latter is not necessarily marked, when it appears from the context; thus, shum rhad, three bulls. There is, however, a separate plural suffix ga, which usually takes the fuller form gan before suffixes; thus, nyish $b\bar{a}$ -ga, two fathers; $b\bar{a}$ -gan-ka, of fathers; chanditso marshang-gan-dits, from good men.

Case.—The subject of intransitive verbs is not distinguished by means of any suffix. The final i in du-i tot- $k\tilde{o}$, he was; duga-i tot-ke, they were, is probably an emphasizing particle.

The subject of transitive verbs is usually distinguished by means of a suffix sh or s; thus, bā-sh tang-mo, father-by saw, the father saw; jang-s sanemuk', God-by slew, the God slew. The two first personal pronouns do not appear to possess any such case.

The object is often distinguished by adding a p; thus, lata-phata-p, property; sūra-p rwang-m, swine-to feed; ba-p lon-mo, father-to said.

The suffix of the dative is uj, the final sound of which is stated to be a semiconsonant. The text in Tibetan character usually has uzh instead; thus, chime-uj, to a daughter; chho-uj, to a son; ba-ga-uj, to fathers; chime-goj, to daughters.

The suffix of the ablative occurs as s, dz, and <u>ts</u>; thus, Kultang-s, from Kuln; korang-ngaz, from the rent; ba-di-<u>ts</u>, from a father; chanditso marshang-gan-di-<u>ts</u>, from good men. The postposition dits contains this <u>ts</u> added to di, which seems to mean 'with'; compare, bā-di, with, near, the father; marshang-ka-di, to a man, at a man's. The suffix s is also used to denote the instrument; thus, bushu-s, with ropes.

The genitive is formed by adding ka; thus, gramang-ka, of the village; ba-gan-ka, of fathers.

The suffix of the locative and terminative is a; thus, pagring-a, in the pagri; sho-w-a, into the fields; katki-gan-a, on the passes.

Other relations are expressed by adding postpositions. Such are $p\bar{a}$, on; kash, for the sake of; rang, with; hipich, behind; nandris, before; yen, under, and so forth.

Adjectives.—Adjectives usually precede the noun they qualify; thus, kora masking, the lower house; shobila shobila gāsa, good good clothes; but mal-ap sab-ap, all the property. In nyish chanditso marshang, two good men, an o has been added to the adjective before a plural noun. Comparison is expressed in the usual YOL. III, PART I.

way by putting the compared noun in the ablative or the locative; thus, du-ka bau du-ka ringz(-ka) nits lamas to, his brother his sister from tall is; sab-ka-nits akli, all from wise; sab-a tek', all among great. The initial ni in ni-ts, ni-dz, from, is probably a postposition with the same meaning as di, with; compare du and nu, that.

Numerals.—The first numerals are given in the list of words. It will be seen that many of them are Aryan loanwords. Nyish, two, nyi-za, twenty, have been written nish, niza, respectively, in most specimens. The forms with ny have been taken from the texts written in the Tibetan character. Higher numbers are counted in twenties, though the Aryan method of reckoning in tens is also commonly used by men, while the women stick to the other way. Compare nyiza uj das, twenty and ten, thirty; nyiza uj gyara, thirty-one; shat or shum biya, three scores, sixty; pu biya, eighty, and so forth.

Pronouns.—The following are the personal pronouns:—

gu, I.	ko, thou.	du, nu , he, she, it.
ang-p, me.		du- p , him, her, it.
ang-z, to me.	$k\bar{a}j$ or $k\bar{a}dz$, to thee.	du-s, by him.
		duguj, nuguj, for him.
a- ka , my.	kan, kan-ka, thy.	du- ka , his, her, its.
ni, we.	ki, you.	du- ga , they.
ni nyis-mis, we two.		du-gash, by them.
ning-z, to us.	kīdz, to you.	
ni-ka, our.	kidz, to you. kin-ka, your.	du-gan-ka, there.

The termination z in ang-z, to me, is identical with the dative suffix uj. The base nu of the third person is inflected like du. Note also ang-rang, with me; du- $di\underline{ts}$, from him; du-gan-di, with them; anu and anuka, own.

There are apparently no dual forms and no double forms of the plural of the first person, denoting the exclusive and inclusive plural.

Interrogative pronouns are hate, who? hase, by whom? hat-ka, whose? hate ditse, from whom? chhuge, what? hole, how? kwe, why? Indefinite pronouns are formed from the same bases; thus, hati, any one; hasi, by any one; chhigi, anything.

The pronoun of the third person is also used as a demonstrative pronoun. Note also tes waktus, at that time.

Relative pronouns are yang-s, by whom; yang, whatever.

Verbs.—The materials at my disposal are not sufficient for giving a full sketch of Kanāshī conjugation. It is apparently much simpler than in Kanāwrī. There are no certain instances of the use of suffixes to denote an object or to add a reflexive meaning. It is probable that the shi in forms such as ashig, became; lam-shig, was found; na-shi-tamung, we sit, is an intransitive or passive suffix, but nothing can be said with certainty.

As in Kanāw rī there are two verbs meaning 'to give,' ran and ke. The former is used when the indirect object is of the third person, the latter when it is of the first.

There is at least a strong tendency to distinguish the person of the subject by adding suffixes to the verb; thus, boke-k, I went; boke-n, wentest; bok, he went. The state of affairs seems to be as follows.

In the first person singular a k is added; thus, shigu-ta-k, I die. This k is a semi-consonant, and g is occasionally written instead; thus, shan-mo-g, I did. Forms such as to-tang, I should beat; sho-tang, (that I) might make (merry), are perhaps plural, and to-tan, I may beat, is perhaps misheard for to-tang.

In the second person singular a suffix n is usually added; thus, to-n, art; bo-ke-n, wentest. In $tot-ke-n-\tilde{o}$, wast, a nasalized vowel has been added.

There is apparently no suffix to denote a subject of the third person; thus, to, is; royo-to, lives; lon-mo, said. Often, however, a half pronounced k' is added, as in the case of the first person; thus, bura-tak', he comes.

The characteristic termination of the two first persons plural is apparently ng; thus, bong-ta-ng, we go; bo-ke-ng, we went.

Verb Substantive.—The usual base of the verb substantive is to or tot, and it is inflected as follows:—

P	resent.	Past.			
Sing. 1. tot-k.	Plur. 1. tong. 2. tong. 3. tush, tosh.	Sing. 1. tot-ke-k.	Plur. 1. tot-keng.		
2. to-n.		2. tot-ke-n-õ.	2. tot-keng.		
3. to.		3. tot-kõ.	3. totke.		

The list of words gives tot-ke-k, I am, and tot-k, I was, but No. 192, gu toz tod-ke-k, I was beating, shows that tot-ke-k is the past.

Forms such as tosh are also used as a respectful singular; compare Kanāwrī.

Finite verb.—The verb substantive seems to play a considerable rôle in the conjugation of finite verbs, many forms being compounds of a participle and a verb substantive.

There are apparently two tenses, a present-future and a past. Mr. Howell doubts that the present and future terminations are interchangeable, but states that he has not been able to make his Mālānīs understand the difference between the various tenses, and the remarks which follow are therefore given with some reserve.

Present time.—The usual suffix of the present, which is also used as a future, is apparently ta, added to the base or to a form ending in u, ku, or gu; thus, bong-ta-k, I go, I shall go; shigu-ta-k, I die; royo-ta-n, dwellest; ran-ta-n, givest; dwa-ta, he comes; bura-tak', he comes; sho-tak, he does; to-ta-ng, we strike, we shall strike; tugu-tang, we drink; bung-tang and buko-tang, you go, etc.

Some suffixes such as mung, kung, kun, kon, or $k\tilde{u}$, and kush, are often added to this ta, apparently without adding anything to the meaning; thus, nashi-ta-mung, we sit; to-ta-kung, you beat, they beat; to-ta-kun (or $-k\tilde{u}$), you will beat, he will beat; togu-ta-k \tilde{u} , beatest, beats; tam-she-ta-kush, we pitch; to-ta-kush, they will beat, etc.

Forms such as sho-task, they make; bong-task, he comes, should be compared with took, is, are. The same is probably also the case with taskang, is.

Periphrastic forms containing the verb substantive are royo-to, he lives; raku-ta-to, he is grazing, and probably also bura-ch-to, he will come.

A k suffix occurs in na-shi-k, sits; kashi-g-eg, is; sukh-ne-k', there is peace; bo-ke, they go; ran-kek', they give, etc. Such forms are commonly used as past tenses.

Past time.—The usual suffixes of past time are apparently me or mo and k, ke, or ge; thus, shan-mo-g, I did; to-me-k, I struck; bura-ke-k, I have come; to-me-ng, we struck; bo-ke-ng, we went; khang-me-n, boughtest; bo-ke-n, wentest; bo-k, went; wat-k, laughed; mil-ek, was found; bura-k, came; richi-mo, he asked; ran-muk', he gave; shan-mug, he did; tsha-mek, he heard; bo-ke, they went; bhur-muk, they left. The suffixes kun or kũ and kush are used as in the present time. Compare twat-ke-kon, he sent; to-ge-kũ, struckest, struck; to-ge-kung, you struck, and perhaps to-me-kun, I had beaten; further to-ge-kush, they struck. Shigon, died, and bigon, was lost, are perhaps participles. Forms such as hashig and hashik, became; achig, arose, have already been mentioned under the head of present time. Compare also chum-shige, kissed, literally perhaps 'kissing became.'

Imperative.—The base alone can be used as an imperative; thus, ran, give; ach, be. The final ng in forms such as pi-chi-ng, put; ka-ng, bring, is perhaps a plural suffix. Compare the final ng in verbal forms of the first and second persons plural. There are apparently some imperative suffixes such as ke, t, and u; compare tshud-ke, bind; bung-t, go; ra-t, give; lā-u, put; to-muk, beat. Note also pi-chi-gu-n, make me, which apparently contains a suffix gu denoting an object of the first person, and another suffix n denoting the subject.

Passive voice.—There does not appear to be any passive voice. Compare ang-p to-ge-kush, me they struck, I was struck. Forms such as gu toto bura-tak, I striking go, I shall be struck, are simply attempts at a literal translation of the Aryan idiom.

Verbal nouns and participles.—The usual verbal nouns are formed by adding the suffix m or miz; thus, yang-m, to live; la-miz, to wear. Forms such as hashi-ta, to be; boda, to spare, are apparently identical with the usual base of the present time.

The reduplicated base is used as a participle; thus, za-za, eating; to-to, beaten. The usual tense bases are probably also used as participles. Compare bok, gone; hashige, having been. Note also to-z, beating; bung-sta bung-sta, going.

Negative voice.—The negative particle is a prefixed ma; thus, ma-ran, did not give; ma-yag, did not wish. The vowel of ma seems to be rather faint, and has a tendency to approach the initial vowel of the verb in sound; compare me ken-ken, didst not give; mu tutash, does not come.

Order of words.—The order of words is said to be comparatively free. The usual succession, however, is subject, object, verb.

For further details the student is referred to the specimens which follow and to the list of Standard Words and Phrases on pp. 532 and ff.

[No. 39.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

KANĀSHĪ.

SPECIMEN I.

(G. C. L. Howell, Esq., 1907.)

I marshang-ka-di nyish chhang-sa tush. Phākuch chhog-sh anu Small 80n.by own father-to 8028 are. two man-to One hisa-p ang-z kesag.' kim-aj-sho-ka Bā-sh kan-ka 'nū hā. lon-mo. house-and-field-of share me-to give." Father-by father. thy 0 3 કલાંતી. nyish chhanga-uj anu-ka laṭa-phaṭa-p nyish banḍa-ga rāṇ-mo. Dala dvārī aires. **Few** days two shares property sons-to 01011 1.400 shan-mo; dabaz-pheta dür kat hipich phākuch chhok-sh anu-ka hisa-p together made: then far sharesmallson-by 01011 after chhigi-mi-pi-chi-mo. Zhaha ānu-ka lata-phata-p bok hed par-deshang When anything-not-left. property foreign-country went own and dīt dabode shan-mug, kharats sab-ap māl-ap anu-ka dzaganga there then made. allspent property 01012 place-at that marshang deshang ì Du hashig. gharib poyak; $d\mathbf{u}$ ankālang country-in That one poor became. he befell; famine rwang-m marshaug-s show-a sūr-ap bo-ke-kon. Dπ vang-m rang feed-to swine field-to man-by That went. live-to with kholang-p sür-as nu shon plen-mo; anu twat-ke-kon. Kholang za-zā swine-by those husks filled; bellu own Huskseating sent. duguj hosh Jabe rān. mā chhige dugui hāsi bhur-muk; When him-to sense not gave. anything anyone-by him-to left; du-gan-di tush: thinda nonda lon-mo. 'āka bā-di du-s hurak. are: them-with servanis father with so-many 'my said. came, him-by shigu-tak. Gu Gu wash boda tosh. tosh, hed bhori oda zā-miz I die. I hungry to-spare are. breads are. andeat-to much"nu ăka bā, lo-tak, bung-tak, du-p bā-di achi-tak ānu chhabaya " O him say-will my father, own father-to go-will, arise-will 11010 kan-ka nam-ap gukasür shanmog; sāmna sāmna Bhagwān kan क्षा I thy name did: before sin God before of-thee bā-di pi-chi-gu-n." Achig ānu thind rāik: ang-p dul-mis ma servant make-me-thou." own father-near Ar08e worthy: me

chbo-uj nark-dan-k. du anu anu-ka durats tang-mo, Bä-sh bok. son-for sorrow-came, he Father-by far-from 01011 01013 saw. went. Chhok-sh pai-shige. chum-shige lon-mo. bok ran-mo thor chho-ka-di kissed hugged. Son-by said. gave went son-to runnina sāmna Bhagwān-ka nark shan-mog; gu kan-ka kan 'nu aka bā. gu evildid:I O my father, I of-thee God-of thybefore lon-mo, 'shobila anu-ka thinda-p ma-gek.' Bā-sh lāik chho-ka servants-to said. 0102 'aood son-of worthy not-am. Father-by nu-ka prāt-pā mundri rān: lā-u, lā-miz shobila gāsa kang, nuguj clothes bring, him-to to-wear h**i**s finger-on ring give: put. qoodzā-miz tung-miz kang. Gu khushi de-tak. ang-z godinga zora lā-u; drink-to bring. I merry make-shall. me-for eat-to foot-on shoes put; aka chho shigon, zaba shug-ashig; bigon zaba mil-ek.' Du-ka taïs now alive-became; lost now found-was.' Him-of sake-for died. my khushi ashig. **z**hā. became. merry much

chho show-a Zhabe tot-kon. burak kimang waktus du-ka teg Tes When came house hisbig80% field-in was. That time chage gitang-läge tshā-mek. D11-8 i bahiro puzhak, tabo nerang dancing outside singing heard. Him-by then one near came. shot-ke?' richi-mo, 'chhuge du-dits Du-s hed thindu-p āre-mo, 'what has-happened?' Him-by and him-from asked, servant called, hā-sh du-ka taĩs bău burak: kan zā-miz duguj lon-mo, 'kan father-by him-of sake-for eat-to brother came: thy him-to said, 'thy burak.' razi-khushi-deg hondes Dugui Kwe? du tung-miz ran-mo. Him-to safe-and-sound back came. he Why? drink-to gave. bahiro dwa-tā, Du-ka bā kubor burang ma-yag. nark-dän gek, to-go not-wanted. comes, His father outside evil-temper became, inside kan-ka nonda ʻgu Du-s ba-ui lon-mo, shot-ta. du-s ar7. 'I thu 80**-man**y Him-by father-to said. him-by entreaty makes. kan-ka shon-mek shon-mek; gu nits bhada umle ma barsha nokri did. thee of from order contrary not did: I years service duguj ānu-ka mitārā-ui phākuch bakar ken-ken. nāmi me Ko friends-for gavest-to-me, that-for own small goat not Thou ever burak, yang-s anu-ke Jabe chho shotang. phākuch khushi nu came. whom-by OLON might-make. When thatsmall. 80n merry taĩs ko lata-phata-p betriga-uj du-ka ran-mo, hed sab-ap wes-mo, sake-for him-of and all finished. thouwomen-to gave, property ran! 'aka chho. ko ang tung-miz ran-tan.' Du-s lon-mo. zā-miz wit Him-by said. drink-to givest." ' my 80m, thou me eat-to

sadā royo-tan; yang to aka māl, du sabe kan-ka. Ning-1 always dwellest; whatever is my property, that all thine. Us-to khusi āshigeg; kan-ka bau shigon, zabaiye shug-ashig; bigon, merry-making became; thy brother dead, now alive-became; lost, zaba lām-shig.' now found-was.'

[No. 40.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

KANĀSHĪ.

SPECIMEN II.

(G. C. L. Howell, Esq., 1907.)

Ni-ka grāmang-ka nāma Malāni. Dugas dāragang moejanga.

Our village-of name Malāni. At-the-bottom hills middle-in.

Kultang-s hole bura-tash?

Kulu-from how come?

duja Nyish kāthī-ga tush: pahle Roshkoling kāthī, Chandarkhani. first pass, second Twopasses are; Roshkoling Chandarkhani. nyishi kāthī-gan-a hed nark-nālang. Guna pom to Daba hāti both and dangerous-are. Winter-in passes-on 8n0w isThen anyone tutash, hed ning-z sukh-nek'. Ashlang mu Jeshtang pom khuleo-to: not comes. and . us-to peace-is. Jeth Hār 8**now** melts: shatant-sāhib bura-tak'. nark Ni nu to. borang ān assistant-commissioner that evil We comes. i8. loads to-carry lām-she-ta-kush, homap toreo-to. tambu-p lham-she-ta-kush: lokas necessary-is, tents to-pitch-have, bears to-find-have; altpeople ashige: jang-sh nark-dān to: ta nark wakt nπ to. God-to evil-temper is; together become; that very evil timeis.

sab-a Ni-ka tek'. jang Phurangi 8i musalmana si hakras great-is. Our God all-among White-men also Musalmans also acate ran-tash. Du-ka dzīmi du-ka mazāra-ga kultang tosh: du-ka Him-of land him-of tenants in-Kulu are: him-of bhandarang to: du-s Akbar bādshāb hātīs ran-muk'. Kultang-za dzā is: it-for Akbar king elephant gave. Kulu-people much bho-ku-tash.

fear.

Pahle khare nark dukh ashig. Ι chorasug jang-s sane-muk'; Formerly very evil misery happened. One thief God-by slew; sirkara-s i tophap sipahi-su-di sherā-muk'; jang-s du-gan-ka Government-by gun soldiers-with one sent; God-by their kachara-ga-p sane-muk'. Jang khare khushi dek' khare wät-k. Godmules slew. much merry became muchlaughed. Kultang-za khare uta. Ann-ka tokap betri-kash lugri-kash foolish-are. Kulu-men muck Their rupees woomen-on lugri-on

mukadma-kash kharats shotash. Jabe bārīya korang pang-m bong-tash. make. When baris rent collect-to spent 90, cases-on bakras goju-tang. Daba shabri-ka mulang ni jar jar da lutia-tang; we day daywe-eat. Perhaps meat-of goat we-loot; then egu-tak'? Dabadze Kultang-za uta-tosh. kateo-tang; häse korang-ngaz Kulu-men fools-are. whom-by knows? Anyhoro rent-from we-cut: Sabka-nits akli ni-tong; ni bho-kutang. Aslis riwāj. he Ni-ka wise we-are; we are-feared. Us-of different custom. All-from Really 100 chhigi fikri tashang. \mathbf{mo} egu-tang; what matter i8. know; anything not

mu tugu-tang; gling tugu-tang Lugri nenk to. Ni-ka sara drink-we, drink-we; barley-beer Our custom thus 18. Rice-beer not Rigin nashing Ni-ka nyish pachi-ga tosh. lage-tang. gling sitting Upper get-drunk-we. Us-of two assemblies are. barley-beer Köra-nashing ni duja Rigin-nashing to; du-ka nāma pachinga Lower-house other 108 i8; Upper-house name assembly-in itsgyāra marshang nashi-ta-mung, kārmishtas pujyara jang Rigin lo-tang. karmishta priest we-sit. eleven men place Uppersay. Kirmishtas golang jeshtas. nu \mathbf{hed} sat haria gur this way-in The kirmishta headmen. seven under-prophet and prophet ra-deo chho-p du-ka Karmishtas shig, ashio-tak'. mukar the-community his 80% Karmishta dead, hecomes. appointed marshang-s zhubang shum nvish dzīgek; chotrang-nga sabush barley-stalks three men-by troo take : council-platform-in all-by chho-uj karmishtas-ka Trr's ran-kek'. gur-ka gut-pā kat-kek'; son-for karmishta-of -bu give. hand-in qur-of cut: Pujyara nu mai. cì SATA He ran-muk'. pagringa not-is. Priest this custom. E . Other gives. pagri-in pujyara de karmishtas. hāl mukar ashio-to: golanga thus priest karmishta, as. becomes; appointed way-in ashio-to. becomes.

Barta hase pi-cheu-tak'?

Barta whom-by chooses?

Ni pi-cheu-tang; gur-p ni pi-cheu-tang; jeshta-p pi

We choose; gur ve choose; jeshtas also

pi-cheutang.

pr-chemang.

Karmishtasu-ka chhuge kam?

Karmishta-of what work?

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pachinga nashi-tak', Puja sho-tak'. ti ko-tak'. theka-p assembly-in perforing, water brings, Worship sits.revenue shan-m bong-tak', bong-tak', mukadba-p jeshtap grā-m sab-up cases decide-to jeshtas. collect-to goes, goes, all sha-tak'. kat together makes.

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

Our village is called Malana; it is in a deep valley.

How do you get to it from Kulu?

By two passes, the first is called Roshkoling, the other Chandarkhani. Both are covered with snow in the winter, and are dangerous. Then foreigners cannot come in, and we are at peace. In Jeth and Här the snow melts, the Assistant Commissioner comes; that is bad. We have to carry loads, pitch tents, find bears; everyone is upset; Jang is angry; an evil time.

Our God is very great; even Englishmen and Muhammadans give him goats. He has lands and tenants in Kulu, and a treasury to which king Akbar gave an elephant. The Kulu people revere him greatly.

Once a dreadful thing happened; the God slew a thief; the Government sent soldiers with a gun; the God slew their mules; the God was much pleased and laughed loudly.

The Kulu people are foolish. They spend their money on women, beer, and cases. When our *Bari* goes to collect our revenue, we loot them, eating goats daily. Perhaps we cut the price of our meat from their rents, who knows? Anyhow they are fools.

Our customs are different; we are the wisest people in the world, and we are much respected. We do not know anything really, but what matter.

Our customs are as follows. We do not drink rice beer, but get drunk on barley beer. We have two assemblies; the upper assembly we call the Rigīn Nashing, the other the Kōra Nashing. In the Rigīn Nashing sit eleven men, the Karmishia, the Pujyara, the Gur, the Barta, and seven Jeshias.

The Karmishta is thus elected. The dead Karmishta's son is taken by the Ra Deo to the council platform. Two or three men bring two or three stalks of barley and give them to the Gur, and he puts them in the Karmishta's son's pagri. There is no other ceremony.

The Pujyara is thus elected. He is elected like the Karmishta.

Who chooses the Barta?

We choose him, and also the Gur and the Jeshias.

What are the duties of the Karmishta?

He conducts service, brings water (from Kanaur), presides at the assembly, collects revenue, conducts cases, and gathers the *Jeshtas* together.

MANCHĀŢĪ OR PAŢNĪ.

Manchat or Patan is a portion of British Lahul adjacent to Chamba Lahul. It is situated on both sides of the united Chandra-Bhaga. The dialect spoken in that district is known as Manchāṭī or Paṭnī. A similar dialect is spoken in the portion of Lahul within the Chamba State, and it will be dealt with immediately after Manchāṭī.

The number of speakers of Manchātī in Kangra was estimated for the purposes of this Survey at 2,995. The corresponding figure at the 1901 Census was 2,441.

AUTHORITY-

DIACK, A. H.,—The Kulu Dialect of Hindi. Some Notes on its grammatical structure, with Specimens of the Songs and Sayings current amongst the people and a Glossary. Labore, 1896. Contains a Patan vocabulary on pp. 102 and ff.

The Gospel of St. Mark has been translated into Manchāṭī by the Rev. A. H. Francke.

A version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son in the Manchat dialect has been kindly prepared for me by the Rev. A. W. Heyde. A transcript of this version must have come into the hands of the Chamba officials, for another copy of it has been forwarded from the Chamba State. Mr. Heyde's copy was not accompanied by a translation. The interlinear translation has therefore been taken from the Chamba copy. The same is the case with a passage which had been left out in Mr. Heyde's transcript. It has been added within parentheses. A list of Standard Words and Phrases from Lahul will be found on pp. 532 and ff.

Manchātī is closely related to the other Lahul dialects, and also to Kanāw'rī. The grammatical system is not so complicated as in that latter dialect. The same use of pronominal suffixes in order to distinguish the various persons of verbal tenses is, however, common to both.

The remarks on Manchāṭī grammar which follow are entirely based on the materials mentioned above and on some additional remarks, for which I am indebted to the Rev. A. H. Francke.

Pronunciation.—Short final vowels are often dropped. Thus the pronominal suffixes of the first two persons are ga and g; na and n, respectively.

O and u are often interchanged. Thus, kano and kanu, thy. Similarly we find gye-u and gyi-u, my.

Aspirated soft consonants only occur in lean-words; thus, ghar-bar, house. The

palatal affricatæ are the same as in Tibetan, viz., ts, tsh, and dz.

Initial double consonants are not frequent. We find dr in $dr\bar{a}ld$, destitute. A u has been inserted between t and r in t-u-rui, Tibetan drug, six, and so forth. The materials are not, however, sufficient for going further into detail.

Hard and soft consonants are sometimes interchanged. Thus, $s\tilde{a}$, ten; nyi-za, twenty; $(do-r-)-\underline{t}si$, from; $(khuang-)\underline{d}zi$, from (the well), and so forth.

genitive suffix gyi in Tibetan. The form dz is common after ng, and z. or dropping of the consonant appears to be usual after vowels. The specimens are not, however, consistent, and we must leave the question to be solved on the base of further research.

The final consonants in words such as tot', is; siyatek', he was dead, are only half pronounced.

We have no information about the existence of tones and about the accent.

Articles.—The numeral idi, i, one, is used as an indefinite article, and definiteness is indicated by using demonstrative pronouns and relative clauses.

Nouns.—The prefix a seems to be little used. I have only noted it in the Tibetan word a-gu, uncle.

Gender.—The natural gender is distinguished by using different words or by means of qualifying additions. Thus, $ri\underline{t}\underline{s}a$, he-goat; $l\bar{a}$, she-goat: bang-da, bull; $goan^a$, cow: rhang, horse; nabran, mare: khui, dog; $mingar\tilde{a}-khui$, bitch.

Number.—There are apparently two numbers, the singular and the plural. The plural is not marked when it appears from the context. The usual plural suffix is re after vowels, dze after ng, and de after n. Thus, mi-re, men; rhang-dze, horses; nabran-de, mares. It seems probable that the various consonants of the suffix represent different cases. Compare the remarks on Chamba Lāhulī in what follows. The case suffixes apparently coalesce with the plural suffix. The cases of the plural therefore differ from the singular.

Case.—The subject of intransitive verbs and the object are not distinguished by means of any suffix. The dative is, however, sometimes used as an accusative; thus, gye do-u yo-bi mast tarab-tesi teng-ri-ga, I have beaten his son with many stripes.

The subject of transitive verbs is put in the case of the agent, which is formed by adding a suffix which occurs as \underline{dzi} , zi, \underline{tsi} , and i. The form \underline{tsi} is used in the plural and often also in the singular, zi and i after vowels; and \underline{dzi} once after a vowel. It is probably the regular form after ng. Thus, $ngye-\underline{tsi}$, by us; ba-zi, by the father; do-i, by him. The Chamba transcript of the Parable always uses i after vowels; thus, yo-i, by the son. See below.

The same suffix is used to denote the instrument, and also in order to form an ablative. Thus, t^*rab - $\underline{t}si$, with stripes; $b\bar{a}$ -u do-r- $\underline{t}si$, father-of there-from (compare Hindi $yah\tilde{a}$ $s\tilde{e}$), from the father; khuang-dzi, from the well.

The various forms of this suffix can apparently be explained from the Tibetan gyis. The suffix of the dative is bi; thus, ba-bi, to the father. In the plural we find ting instead; thus, nokar-ting, to the servants. Ting apparently corresponds to the singular suffix ring or ri, and is probably a terminative suffix.

The suffix of the genitive is u or o, before which a final ng and r are doubled; thus, mi-u, of a man; sarg-o-e, heaven-of and; rhang-ngu, of a horse; nagarrau, of the village. In rang-ngu-tog-ting, on a horse, tog-ting is the postposition. The plural ends in tu; thus, $b\bar{a}a$ -tu, of fathers.

The suffix of the terminative is r; thus, do-r, there; der, here. It is probably contained in or identical with the suffix rang, ring, ri, plural tang, ting, which is used in the sense of a terminative and locative. Thus, $gharb\bar{a}r$ -rang, in the house; pun-dga-ring, on the top; rhi-ring, into the fields; $y\bar{a}r$ -tang sate, friends-in together, together with my friends; nokar-ting, to the servants; gui-ting, on the hands.

Mr. Diack mentions a genitive suffix nn and a locative suffix ang. They have probably been inferred from forms such as kan-u, thy; ghar-rang, in the house, and are perhaps due to misunderstanding.

Other relations are indicated by means of postpositions. Such are *bichang*, among (Hindī *bīch*); poyang, under; kachang, near; thale, behind; thal-zi, on account of; tui, before, and so forth.

Adjectives.—Adjectives precede the noun they qualify. Thus, tehangsi rhang-ngu, of the white horse; i mā-zhi yo, a bad boy. Note the final i in many adjectives.

The particle of comparison is be or be-<u>tsi</u>; compare Bunán basta. Thus, du-beruțhe, him-than good, better; dō-u kākā dō-u ring-be-<u>tsi</u> lhame tot', his brother his sisterthan tall is; ruțhe be-<u>tsi</u> ruțhe kham, good than good cloth, the best cloth.

Numerals.—The numerals are given in the list of words. In addition to jut, two, we also find nyi in nyi-za, two-tens, twenty; nyi-nyi-zau sā, two twenties ten, fifty. The latter compound shows that higher numbers are counted in twenties, as is also the case in Kanāw rī.

The numerals precede the noun they qualify.

Pronouns.—The following are the personal pronouns:—

	Sixeu	LAR.	Dr.	A.E.	PLYRAL		
Ordinary.		Bespectful	Exclusive.	! Inclusiva.	Exclusive.	Inclusive	
lst person .	gys	***	ngye-ku	ngyeng-gu	пуус-ге	ngye-na-10	
2nd person .	ka	kye-na		ky eng-gu		kye-na-re	
3rd person .	đu	•••	do-ku	•••	do-re		

Other forms are gye, by me; gye-bi, to me; gye-u, gyi-u, my; ngye-tei, by us; ngye-tu, our; ka-i, ke-i, by thee; kan-ing, to thee; kanu, keno, thy; kye-tei, by you; kye-tu, your; db-i, by him; do-u, his; do-bi, him; eno, own; do-tei, by them; do-tu, their, and so forth. The form do-ku-tu, of them, contains a suffix which perhaps corresponds to gon in Kanāw'rī do-gon, they. Compare u-ku, kisses?

Demonstrative pronouns are di, this; du, do, that, and probably also au, that. Note also the use of do as a definite article in instances such as gye-u de ba-s do-r, my that father-of there, to my father.

Interrogative pronouns are a-ri, who? au, which? a-tu, whose? chhi, what? &-u-r, where? a-pel, when ? tai, how many? anyo, how much, how many? and so forth. The interrogative pronouns are made indefinite by adding la or le; thus, a-tei-la, by anyone; chhal-le, anything; a-pel-la, ever.

The interrogative pronouns are also used as relatives. Thus, mal-o anyo banta gyebi pipad rau, property of how-great share me-to comes give, give me the share that falleth to me; du knol-zi au sungar-re zoa-to-re, by those hunks which the swine ate; di yo ati au-tsi kann mal phukeg-ti, this son came by-whom thy property was wasted;

ãu bela-ring, what time-in, when. Such constructions are, of course, due to the influence of the neighbouring Aryan vernaculars.

Verbs.—The verb is in all essential points a noun. The subject of transitive verbs is accordingly commonly put in the case of the agent, and there is no separate passive. There are, however, traces of a somewhat different state of affairs, just as is the case in Kanāwrī and, to some extent, in the Almora dialects. The various persons are commonly distinguished by adding pronominal suffixes, viz., ga or g for the first, na or n for the second, and d or nothing for the third person singular. In the plural we find ni or n for the first and second persons, and d, re or r for the third.

Ga, na, and d are the bases of the personal pronouns. Ni, on the other hand, is probably a verb substantive, and re is perhaps identical with the common plural suffix, or else it is a verb substantive. Compare Tibetan red.

Verb substantive.—The usual bases of the verb substantive are shu, and tot' The final t of this word is only half pronounced. Ni, which is used as a suffix of the first and second persons plural, is perhaps also a verb substantive. Compare also ag in a-pag, comes, etc.

The regular inflexion of the verb substantive will be seen from the table which follows:—

	P	esent.	Past,			
•	Singular.	Piural.	Singular.	Plural.		
1st person	shu-ga	shu-ni	to-e-ga	to-e-ni		
2nd person	shu-na	shu-ni	to-e-na	to-e-ni		
3rd person	shu-d	shu-re	to-e	to-e-re		

Forms such as to-d, is, are also used in the third person plural. In the specimen we find to-i. they were, and so forth.

The base to apparently also has the form ta. Compare the instances under the head of present time below.

Finite verb.—The inflexion of finite verbs is to a great extent effected by adding the verb substantive.

Present time.—The present tense is often formed by adding the personal suffixes of the present tense of the verb substantive to the participles or verbal nouns ending in ba, pa, dza, a, etc. Thus, teng-bo-g, I strike; pi-pa-d, he comes; ngye-tsi teng-dza-to-ni, we are striking; roag-tsa to-re, they are grazing; oye teng-dzi thareg-shra to-g, I am going on to strike; gye yoā to-g, I go; kye-tsi teng-dza tani, you strike, and so forth. Note the suffix ak' or ag, probably a form of the verb substantive, in the third person singular in forms such as yoak', he goes; a-pag, he comes; bang-dzag, he dwells.

Past time.—The usual suffix of past time is i. Thus, lha-i-ga, I have done; ra-i-na, gavest; il-i-ni, you went, and so forth. The list of words gives il-i, went.

I is preceded by a in khon-a-i--- hank

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Instead of i we often find fuller forms such as ri, zi, ti, di, and di. Thus, teng-ri-ga, I have beaten; sha-ri-na, thou killedest; shring-ri, he has become alive; shatte kharchek shu-bi le-ti, all expended to-be began, he had spent almost all; phu-keg-ti, squandered; tsar-ti, sent; chen-di, entreated; tha-di, and tha-zi, heard; pi-di, arrived. I am not able to state which form is the original one.

A compound past is also formed by adding the past tense of the verb substantive to the verbal nouns ending in ma, a, etc. The past base of the verb substantive in such cases has the form te. Thus, a-tsi-la ma ram-ma-te-r, anyone by not gave-they, nobody gave; teng-nga te-g, I struck; teng-nga-tek, he struck; siya-te, he had died, and so forth,

Formssuch as *lha-to-g*, I have done; *shea-to*, he has killed; *zea-to-re*, they ate; anja-d, he has come; *shringa-d*, he has become alive, are identical with the present.

Compound past tenses are *lha-s-i to-d*, it is made; *yhō-shri-te*, heing lost he was, he had been lost.

Future.—The base alone is apparently used as a future; thus, yo-g, I shall go; kuo-g, I shall say. Such forms perhaps contain a suffix o. Another future is formed by adding mo, i.e. the suffix of a participle or verbal noun; thus, teng-mo-g, I shall beat.

Imperative.—The base alone is used as an imperative; thus ila, go, jo, walk. Commonly, however, the suffix u is added; thus, $r\tilde{a}$ -u, give; sha-u, kill, etc. Sometimes the u is nasalized. Thus, $b^a r a \tilde{u}$, sit.

Instead of u we sometimes find tu; thus, lep-tu, take; hu-tu, take out.

Forms such as hata-ni, bring; ra-ni, put on, are plural. Compare the suffix ni which is used in the second person plural in finite verbs.

Verbal nouns and participles.—Verbal nouns are commonly formed by adding postpositions to the base; thus, shu-bi, to be; i-bi, to go; teng-zi, to strike; roag-tsi, to feed; kuṭi-mi, to say, and pingḍi, to fill.

The suffix zi, <u>tsi</u> in teng-zi, to strike, roag-<u>tsi</u>, to feed, is probably the suffix of the case of the agent and of the ablative. The same suffix is apparently used to form conjunctive participles. It occurs in several forms such as <u>dzi</u>, je, che, shi, e, and i. Thus, shu-che, having become; han-je, having brought; ku-che, having said; yhō-shri-te, being-lost was, had been lost; pha-e, dividing; tang-e, having seen; ku-i, said; lha-i, made. Compare the past tense.

Verbal nouns are freely used in the formation of tenses. The most common form ends in a suffix which occurs as <u>dza</u>, <u>tsa</u>, <u>cha</u>, <u>shra</u>, and <u>a</u>. Thus <u>ngye-tsi</u> <u>teng-dza</u> <u>ta-ni</u>, us-by beating is-by-us, we beat; <u>roag-tsa</u> <u>to-re</u>, they are grazing; <u>gye teng-dza</u> <u>te-g</u>, me-by striking was-my, I had struck; <u>gye teng-dza</u> <u>to-tog</u>, I am striking; <u>joa to-g</u>, I am going; <u>teng-nga</u> <u>te-g</u>, striking was-I, I struck, and so forth.

Such forms are also used as conjunctive participles. Thus, teng-dza, having struck; atsa, having arisen; roshreg-shra, having got angry, and so forth.

Similar verbal nouns are also formed by adding one of the suffixes ma, mo, and ba, bo, pa. Compare Tibetan. Thus, ma ram-ma-te-r, not giving were, they did not give; teng-mo-g, I shall strike; si-vā-to-g, I am dying; teng-bo-g, I strike; pi-pa-d, he comes, and so forth.

A suffix eg or ek is used to form a kind of participle. Thus, roshreg(-shra), (having got) angry; kharch-ek, finished; thar-eg-shra, remaining; tor-eg-kate, I vol. III, part 1.

transgressed. It is apparently only used with loan-words. Compare also dorkyeke, running. Note finally shu-tar shu-tar, being; teng-zi-tar, beating; ku-nyi-tar or kutar, on saying.

Passive voice.—There is no passive voice. Gye teng-sa yo-g, I shall be struck, literally means 'I striking shall-go' and is an almost literal translation of the Aryan

idiom.

Negative particle.—The negative particle is a prefixed ma. Thus, ma ra-i-na, gavest not. The negative imperative is formed by prefixing tha; thus, tha lha-u, make not.

Order of words.—The usual order of words is subject, object, verb. Numerals, adjectives, and demonstrative pronouns precede the qualified word. The introduction of relative clauses has occasioned some change in the original Tibeto-Burman collocation of words and sentences.

For further details the student is referred to the specimen which follows and to the list of Standard Words and Phrases on pp. 532 and ff. The former will be followed by a short account of the Chamba dialect. [No. 41.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

MANCHĀŢĪ.

(Rev. A. W. Heyde, 1899.)

(DISTRICT LAHUL)

do-i kur-i. I mi-u jut yo to-i. Do-ku-tu hichang-zi One man-of two sons were. Then him-by said. Them-of ba-bi kur-i, 'e ba. māl-o anro gye-bi younger him-by father-to said, 'O father, property-of how-much share Do-i māl do-ku-ting phae rā-i. Do-rang thore dheya-rau comes, give.' Him-by property them-to dividing gave. Then few thale bare yo-zi bhatte jama lha-i, i waitāre mulk-o saphar together made, one distant country-of journey behind younger son-by alldo-r eno māl mazhi <u>ts</u>alan-ring phukeg-ti. A-u bela-ring made, and there own property bad behaviour-in squandered. What time-in bhatte kharchek shu-bi le-ti, (do dēsh'-ring angā shu-che ili. Do-rang to-be began, (that country-in famine becoming went. all finished Then drāld do shu-che il-i). dēsh-o Do-rang du i raīs-o do-r il-je, he destitute becoming went). that country-of one chief-of there going, Then eno rhi-ring sungar roag-tsi tsar-ti. Do-u manshā to-i, him-by his field-in swine to-feed sent. Hismind reas, those husks-with ã-u sungare-re zoa-to-re, eno khog pingmog; a-tsi-la do-bi chhal-le ma swine ate, own belly will-fill; anyone-by him-to anything not kuri, 'gye-u ram-ma-te-r. Do-rang hosha-ring anje ba-u Then senses-in having-come said, 'my father-of how-many kam-lha-zāṛ'-ting mhassan roṭi to-t'; gye yo-nyi si-vā-to-g. Gye much bread is; I hungering die. I kaving-arisen yo-g u-i do-bi kuo-g, "e ba, do-r gye ваге-о-е my that father-of with will-go and him-to will-say, "O father, I heaven-of-and ka-nu kachang gunā lha-i-ga. En-teg yhatsa kanu yo kuṭi-mi jog did-I. Now sinagain thy son to-say worthy not Gye-bi kanu kam-lha-zār'-tu bichang idi-rang barabar lha-u."' Do-rang among one-with like make." Then having-arisen Мe thy servants-of do-r ili. A-it du waita-re to-i, du tang-e do-u dā his father-of there went. Still he far was, him seeing his father-to pity dorkyeke dou muthu bi gril-ranye mbassan uku rã-i. Yo-zi do-bi came, running him neck to clasped much kiss gave. Son-by kim-to kanu tui gunā lha-i-ga. Enteg yhatsa bā. gye sarg-o-e 'O father, I heaven-of-and thy before sin have-done. Noso again WOL III, PART I.

jog ma to-g.' Ba-zi eno nokar-ting kuri, 'ruthe betsi kanu yo kuti-mi thy son to-say worthy not am.' Father-by his servants-to said, 'good from gure-ting gu-i-thab ruthe kham hatani do-bi kham hanje ra-ni, cloth bringing-out bring him-to clothes good give,hand-on ring kondza-ring paula, ui rendza sha-u zao-ni, khushi tshoï lhau-ni. calffoot-on shoe. fat killeat, merry andmake. Chha-u-thal-zi ku-i-ni-sai-ta, sivatek', enteg shringad; di gye-u yo was-dead, now became-alive: What-of-reason-for this saying, my 80n yho-shrite, enteg khog-siri.' Do-rang do-tsi khushi lha-i le-ti-re. now was-found.' Then them-by merry making began. was-lost.

Do-u more yo rhi-ring to-i. Apele chum-mu kachang pi-ri, big son field-in was. When house-of Hiscame, singing-and neargarpimi chālā tha-zi. Do-rang i pargar-bi, 'ata,' kuche rug-ti, 'di chhi shud?' dancing sound heard. Then one servant-to, 'come,' saying asked, 'this what is-it?' do-bi kuri, 'kanu anjad; noa kanu ba-zi tshoï rendza Him-by him-to said, 'thy younger-brother has-come; thy father-by fat du raji-baji khog-si-mi thal-zi.' Du roshreg-shra tong i-bi sake-for.' has-killed, him safe finding He getting-angry inside to-go ma tha-di. Do-rang do-u ba dag-ting anje dou chen-di. Do-i ba-bi Then his father outside coming him entreated. Him-by father-to not heard. landing ku-ri, 'khã-u, dhono barsha gye kanu tel lha-to-g. A-pel-la kanu 'lo, those years I thy service done-have. answer said. Everthy hukum ma toreg-kate. Kai apel-la i la-u la-tsa gye-bi ma ra-i-na, bhai, order not transgressed. Thee-by ever one goat-of kid me-to not gavest, that, "kenau yāre-tang sate khushi lha-u." A-pel kanu di yo ati, "thy friends-with together merry make." What-time thy this son came, whom-by mazhi <u>ts</u>āla-ring phu-keg-ti, ka-i do-u thal-zi tshoï rendza kanu mãl thy property bad behaviour-in squandered, thee-by his sake-for fat sha-ri-na.' Do-i do-bi ku-ri, 'e yo, ka hamesha-ring gyeu ka-chang to-to-na. killed-hast.' Him-by him-to said, 'O son, thou always me-of near linest. do-r chhi to-t', du kanu shud. Par khushi lha-i khushi shu-bi jushi Me-of place-at what is, that thine is. But merry making merry to-be proper chha-u thal-zi ku-i-ni-saita. di kanu to-i: siyate. noa what-of sake-for said-if. this thy younger-brother was-dead, he shring-ri; yho-shri-te, enteg khog-si-ri.' became alive; was-lost, now found-is.'

CHAMBA LĀHUĻĪ,

The majority of the inhabitants of the Chamba State speak Aryan dialects. There are, besides, some speakers of Tibetan and of a dialect which is almost identical with Manchāṭī. The latter is spoken in the north-east of the State. The number of speakers was estimated at 1,387 during the preliminary operations of this Survey, and it was returned as 1,543 at the last Census of 1901.

AUTHORITY-

BAILEY, REV. T. GEAHAME, B.D., M.R.A.S., - The Languages of Chamba State. Calcutta. 1935.

The Rev. T. Grahame Bailey has written a full account of the dialect which he proposes to call Chamba Lāhuļī. He has kindly allowed me to make use of it for the notes which follow. He has also been good enough to allow me to reprint a version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son and a list of Standard Words and Phrases. See below on pp. 465 and ff., 533 and ff.

Chamba Lāhuļī is almost identical with Manchātī. The Chamba copy of the Manchātī version of the parable mentioned above is probably meant to be an illustration of Chamba Lāhuļī. It will therefore be sufficient to make but a few remarks.

Articles.—The numeral \bar{i} , one, is used as an indefinite article; thus, \bar{i} $mi\vec{k}$, of a man; \bar{i} $s\bar{a}h\bar{u}k\bar{a}r\bar{e}$, a money lender.

Nouns.—The inflexion of nouns is in most particulars the same as in Manchati.

Gender.—The natural gender is distinguished in the usual way; thus, $b\bar{a}$, father; $y\bar{a}$, mother: rhiz, male goat; $l\bar{a}$, female goat: tar- $bh\bar{a}r$, male cat; $bh\bar{a}r$, female cat: $\underline{tsh\bar{a}h}$, horse; nab- $rh\bar{a}$, mare: $y\bar{o}$, son; $m\bar{s}l$ - $y\bar{o}$, daughter, and so on.

Number.—There are two numbers, the singular and plural. The plural is not expressed when it appears from the context; thus, $h\bar{a}th\bar{i}$, elephant, and elephants. The usual plural suffix is r; thus, $rh\bar{i}$, sister; $rh\bar{i}$ -r, sisters: $m\bar{i}l$ - $y\bar{o}$, daughter; $m\bar{i}l$ - $y\bar{o}r$, daughters.

Case.—The cases of the singular and of the plural differ in the same way as in Manchātī.

The subject of intransitive verbs and the object are not distinguished by adding suffixes. The subject of transitive verbs, on the other hand, is put in the case of the agent, which is said to be formed by adding \underline{ts} or, after vowels, \bar{e} in the singular and z in the plural; thus, $rh\tilde{a}$ - \underline{ts} , by a horse; $b\bar{a}$ - \bar{e} , by a father; $m\bar{e}l$ - $y\bar{o}$ - \bar{e} , by a daughter; $rh\bar{a}nez$, by the horses; $m\bar{e}l$ - $y\bar{o}$ -z, by the daughters; $s\bar{u}ra$ -z, by the swine.

The suffix of the dative is vi or bi; plural di; thus, rhi-vi and rhi-bi, to a sister; rhāne-di, to horses; mil-yō-di, to daughters. Phi is used instead in rhā-phi, to a horse.

The suffix of the genitive is u or \bar{o} , plural du; thus, $rh\bar{a}$ -u, of a horse; $b\bar{a}$ - \bar{o} , of a father; $m\bar{s}\bar{s}$, of a man $(m\bar{s}, man)$.; $m\bar{s}l$ - $y\bar{o}$ -du, of daughters. The genitive can also be expressed by putting the governed before the governing noun, without any suffix; thus, $h\bar{a}th\bar{s}$, of an elephant; $s\bar{a}s\bar{s}$ $rh\bar{a}n$ $pal\bar{a}nz$, the white horse's saddle. The final n of $rh\bar{a}n$ is probably developed from the nasal sound in $rh\bar{a}$, horse.

The ablative is formed by adding dots, i.e., dor-ts therefrom, to the base or to the genitive; thus, rhā-dets, from a horse; bā-ō dots, from a father. Dots is by origin an ablative of the demonstrative pronoun ds, de, and the actual suffix is is as in the case of the agent.

A terminative and locative are formed by adding $r\bar{\imath}$, $ar\bar{\imath}$; thus, konz $ar\bar{\imath}$, on the foot; $n\bar{o}karar\bar{\imath}$, to the servants; $rh\bar{\imath}-r\bar{\imath}$, in the field. A shorter suffix r occurs in $d\bar{e}-r$, here; du-r, there, etc. It is perhaps connected with $r\bar{a}$, plural da in $nu-r\bar{a}$, on that side, $d\bar{\imath}-r\bar{a}$, on this side; $g\bar{e}-r\bar{a}$ $s\bar{a}d\bar{e}$, with me; $rh\bar{\imath}-r\bar{a}$ $s\bar{a}d\bar{e}$, with his sister; $y\bar{a}ra-da$ $s\bar{a}d\bar{e}$, with my friends.

Other relations are indicated by means of postpositions. Such are *andrez*, in; $har\bar{e}$, beside; $p\bar{o}e\bar{a}$, under; thale, on account of; $thal\bar{e}$, behind; $toth\bar{i}$, upon; $t\bar{u}\bar{i}$, before, and so on.

Adjectives.—Adjectives precede the word they qualify; thus, $s\bar{a}s\bar{i}$ $rh\bar{a}$, the white horse. The particle of comparison is $v\bar{e}$; thus, $rh\bar{i}$ $v\bar{e}$ $m\bar{o}r\bar{e}$, sister than big, bigger than the sister.

Numerals.—The first numerals are given in the list of words. 'Two' is also $n\bar{\imath}$, compare $s\bar{a}-n\bar{\imath}$, twelve; $n\bar{\imath}-rh\bar{a}$, two hundred. Other numerals are $s\bar{e}-\bar{\imath}d\bar{\imath}$, eleven, sha-shrum, thirteen; $s\bar{a}-p\bar{\imath}$, fourteen; sang, fifteen; $s\bar{a}-tr\bar{\imath}\bar{\imath}$, sixteen; $s\bar{a}-nh\bar{\imath}$, seventeen; $s\bar{a}-r\bar{e}$, eighteen, $sos-k\bar{\imath}u$, nineteen. Higher numbers are counted in twenties. Ordinals are formed by adding $m\bar{\imath}$; thus, $t\bar{\imath}u-m\bar{\imath}$, first; $ju\bar{\imath}-m\bar{\imath}$, second; $shrum-m\bar{\imath}$, third.

Pronouns.—The following are the personal pronouns:—

	I	We	Thon	You	He	They
Nom	gē	yer or nyer	ka, ku	ker	du	đor
Agent	gē, gē	yes or nyez	kē	kez	dōi	doz
Genitive	geū, geō	yedu or nyendu.	ko, kēno	kedu	dō, dō-u	dōdu

Note also eno, own. The Rev. A. H. Francke informs me that there are also dual forms of the pronouns, and, moreover, both exclusive and inclusive forms of the dual and plural of the first person. Thus, nyegu, I and he; nyenggu, I and thou; kyenggu, you two; doku, they two; yer, nyer, I and they; nyenar(e), I and you; ker(e), kyenar(e), you.

Demonstrative pronouns are di, this; du, that, and nu, that (compare nuar, there; $nu-r\bar{a}$, on that side, etc.). Note $d\bar{o}$ $d\bar{e}sh\bar{a}-r\bar{i}$, in that country, where the demonstrative precedes the qualified noun in the genitive.

Interrogative and indefinite pronouns are $\bar{a}r\bar{\imath}$, who? az, by whom? $\bar{a}du$, $\bar{a}duh$ and $\bar{a}d\bar{o}$, whose? $a\tilde{u}$, which? $chh\tilde{\imath}$, what? $chh\bar{a}r\bar{\imath}$, why? $chhi\bar{\imath}\bar{\imath}$, how much? $t\bar{e}m\bar{\imath}$, how many? $chh\bar{a}$, something; chhalla, anything. The interrogative pronouns can also be used as relatives; thus, $a\tilde{u}$ ghār $\bar{\imath}$ chumh kachā $p\bar{\imath}$, what time house near came, when he approached the house; $any\bar{o}$ $m\bar{a}l$ $g\bar{e}$ - $b\bar{\imath}$ $p\bar{\imath}p\bar{a}$ $g\bar{e}$ - $b\bar{\imath}$ $ra\tilde{u}$, how-much property me-to comes me-to give, give me the property that falls to me.

Verbs.—The conjugation of verbs is the same as in Manchāṭā. The pronominal suffixes added in order to distinguish the person of the subject are g, k, ga, or nothing for the first; m and ma for the second; d, $d\bar{o}$, or nothing for the third person singular; m for the first and second, and r for the third person plural.

Verb substantive.—The usual bases of the verb substantive are shu and to or to. Compare the table which follows:—

		Present.		Past.			
Sing. 1	shu-k	todō, tō, ta	tada	tõig	tareg		
2	shu-n	todon	tadan	tõin	taren		
3	{	tod, tō, tōī	tadō	tōī	tarë		
Plur. 1	shunni	todoni	tadoni	tōini	tareni		
2	shunni	todoni	tadoni	tōini	tareni		
3	shūr	todor	tador	toir	tarer		

Forms such as $tod\ t\bar{o}\bar{s}$ are also used in the plural. Forms such as todoni, tadoni, we are, are compounds containing the base to, ta, and an auxiliary do which is probably originally identical.

Finite verb.—The verb substantive plays a considerable rôle in the formation of the various tenses of finite verbs.

Present time.—The present tense is formed by adding $d\bar{o}$, d, followed by the personal suffixes to the base or to a participle ending in $p\bar{a}$, $b\bar{a}$, \bar{a} , etc. Thus, $d\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{a}$ - $d\bar{o}$, and $d\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{a}$ -do-g, I fall; $d\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{a}$ -do-g, thou fallest; ra- $m\bar{a}$ -d, he gives; shuja-d, it is done; $lh\bar{a}$ -do-r, they do. Forms such as ra- $m\bar{a}$ -d, he gives, show that the third person singular is formed by adding the personal suffix directly to the participle; compare also $p\bar{i}$ - $p\bar{a}$, comes; $br\bar{a}$, lives. The latter form is identical with the base.

The participles used in the formation of the present tense can also be described as verbal nouns. A form such as $sh\bar{\iota}$ -do-g, I take away, can literally be translated taking-off-is-by-me.'

Past time.—A simple past is formed by adding $\bar{\imath}$ and subjoining the personal suffixes; thus, $k\bar{u}-\bar{\imath}-g$, I said; $th\bar{a}-\bar{\imath}-n$, thou heardest; $th\bar{a}-\bar{\imath}-ni$, we, you heard. The suffix $\bar{\imath}$ often coalesces with a preceding vowel in various ways; thus, $p\bar{\imath}-g$, I came; $r\bar{e}$, he gave; $lh\bar{e}-r$, they did; $lh\bar{e}-na$ and $lh\bar{e}-n$, didst. Similarly we also find $t\bar{a}ng-g$, I saw.

The termination of the third person is $r\bar{\imath}$, plural ra, after s-sounds; thus, khos- $\bar{\imath}$ - $r\bar{\imath}$, he was found; khos- $\bar{\imath}$ -re, they were found; roshēsh $\bar{\imath}$ - $r\bar{\imath}$, he got angry.

A compound past is formed by adding do, da; to, ta to the base and conjugating throughout; thus, shu-tō, I became; shu-ton, becamest; shu-tō; became; shuton, we, you, became; shuton, they became; zē-da, I ate; zē-dan, atest; zē-dō, ate; zē-dani, we, you, ate; zē-dor, they ate.

Instead of da, etc., we sometimes find ja, etc.; thus, anja, I came; anjad, he came. The most common past tense is apparently formed by adding deg (teg), etc., to the base or to a verbal noun ending in ā, pā, bā, mā, cā, tsā, etc. Thus, ā-bā-de-g, I came; ra-mā-dē, he gave; tsā-tsā-der, they sent.

Deg is by origin a past tense of the base da, which is used as a verb substantive. It can also be added to conjunctive participles; thus, pi-ji-de-g, having-come-was-I, I came.

Instead of deg, etc., we also find dig, etc., in audig, I came, etc.

An l-suffix occurs in forms such as $\bar{\imath}$ -lead, and $\bar{\imath}$ - $l\bar{\imath}$, he went; $th\bar{\alpha}$ -le-g, I heard, and so on. It perhaps belongs to the base.

Future.—The future is formed by adding o to the base or to the verbal noun ending in \bar{a} , etc. The suffix of the third person singular is $d\bar{o}$ or du. Thus, $y\bar{o}-g$, I shall go; $y\bar{o}-n$, wilt go; $y\bar{u}-du$, will go; $d\bar{a}-poni$, we shall fall; $r\bar{a}-mor$, they will give. Forms such as $n\bar{e}-ni$, we shall know; kier, they will leave, etc., are by origin indefinite.

Imperative.—The imperative is formed by adding \tilde{o} , u; thus, $ra\tilde{u}$, give; $lha\bar{o}$, do: $ke\bar{o}$, leave. A suffix $d\ddot{o}$ is used instead in $\bar{a}d\ddot{o}h$, come; $h\bar{a}d\ddot{o}$, bring.

The base alone is apparently used in il, go.

The verbal noun ending in pa, etc., can also be used as an imperative; thus, $d\bar{a}pa$, fall.

A plural imperative is formed by adding ni or $\acute{a}ni$; thus, $\~{a}dani$, come ye; $\~{i}lani$, go ye. Zauani, let us eat, is a future.

The negative imperative is formed by prefixing tha or by suffixing tha, plural $th\bar{o}$; thus, $tha\ l\bar{o}$, do not do; $dau\ tha$, fall not; $d\bar{a}peni\ th\bar{o}$, fall not ye. Note contracted forms such as $th\bar{a}d\bar{o}h$, do not come; $th\bar{e}lani$, do not ye go.

Verbal nouns and participles.—The base alone is used as a verbal noun; thus, $dr\tilde{o} r\tilde{e}$, running gave, he ran; $k\tilde{e} z\tilde{e} tadan$, thee-by eating is-by-thee, thou hast to eat.

A common verbal noun is formed by adding \bar{a} , $p\bar{a}$, $b\bar{a}$, $m\bar{a}$, $z\bar{a}$, $r\bar{a}$, etc. Thus, $yu\bar{a}-d\bar{e}$, going-was, he went; $tengg\bar{a}-de-g$, striking-was-by-me, I struck; tha $d\bar{a}-p\bar{a}$ $lha\bar{o}$, not falling make, do not make a habit of falling; $k\bar{e}$ $m\bar{e}$ $t\bar{e}-m\bar{a}$ $tha-l\bar{o}$, thee-by man striking not-make, do not habitually strike anybody; do-z $t\bar{e}-z\bar{a}$ $lh\bar{a}-der$, them-by striking made-they, they usually struck.

The same suffix is apparently used to form relative participles and nouns of agency; thus, $kam-lh\bar{a}-z\bar{a}$, work doer, servant; $khos\bar{a}$, found.

If the final \bar{a} is replaced by \bar{i} the meaning is apparently that of an infinite of purpose; thus, $g\bar{i}$ i- $b\bar{i}$ $t\bar{o}$ -ig, by-me to-go was-I, I had to go; $kuri-m\bar{i}$, to say; $ru\bar{a}$ - $\underline{t}\underline{s}\bar{i}$, in order to feed, etc.

Conjunctive participles end in $\underline{ts}\bar{a}$, \bar{e} , $j\bar{i}$, $j\bar{e}$, $r\bar{i}$, zi, j, zh, and so on; thus, $a\underline{ts}\bar{a}$, arising; $ph\bar{a}\bar{e}$ $rand\bar{i}$, dividing give; $phug\bar{e}$ $ket\bar{o}$, wasting left; $anj\bar{i}$, having come; $d\bar{a}j\bar{e}$, falling; $t\bar{a}r\bar{i}$, seeing; $t\bar{e}zi$ $t\bar{o}\bar{i}$, he is sitting; hunj, taking out; kezh, leaving, and so on. Compare the suffixes of the case of the agent and of the terminative.

Negative verb.—The negative particle is a prefixed ma; thus, ma $ram\bar{a}$ -der, they did not give; ma da-g, I shall not fall. Ma sometimes coalesces with a following vowel; thus, $m\bar{e}h$ -g, I shall not go. It is sometimes also suffixed; thus, $thu\bar{a}s\bar{\imath}$ ma, did not neglect. The past negative tenses of $\bar{a}b\bar{\imath}$, to come; $\bar{\imath}b\bar{\imath}$, to go, are formed as follows:—

	Sing.	Plur.	Sing.	Plur.
1	āggŕmu	ānniímu	ī ggiému	inniému
2	ānnému	anniému	Innému	īnniému
3	ānnému	ānniému	E lému	īlurému
		}		

The negative is, in such forms, a suffix.

For further details the student is referred to the version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son which follows, and to the list of Standard Words and Phrases on pp. 533 and ff.

[No. 42.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

CHAMBA LAHUĻĪ.

(STATE CHAMBA.)

(Rev. T. Grahame Bailey, 1905.)

tõi. Cheje yõĩ bārang kūī. ۴ē bā. T miữ jur yö anvõ One man-of two sons were. Small son-by father-to said, 'O father. what gē-bī pīpā gē-bī raŭ.' Dōī ēnō māl phāē rando. property me-to comes me-to give.' Him-by own property dividing gave. That-from yūẽ chīi jamā lhātē, öhētār mulkha-rī thalē thora dīnē cheje või after few days small son-by all things together made, far country-in went. dōi madam kam lhātō, ēnō phuge kető. māl Du bēlā-rī batē own property wasting left. That time-in all work did. There him-by bad Dorā du dēshā-rī binā anggā shutë (or, ide). ďο kharch shujidē spent becoming-went that country-in great famine became (went). Then he ī sāhūkārē dörē īdē. đō dēshā-rī Dôi ēnā shujidē. Dörā straitened became. Then that country-in one rick-man near went. Him-by own rhī-rī sūrar ruū<u>ts</u>ī <u>ts</u>ātte. Dō mansa tōī, 'du sữraz shang field-in swine to-graze sent. His mind was, 'that husk-food swine-by eating-were chhalla ma ramåder. Dorã Azla dōbī pīmādeg.' khog ēnō Then By-anyone him-to anything not gave-they. own stomach I-might-fill.' kamlhāzā-dī anyō hāō dō-bī liōsha āndē, tā kutē, ʻgiü 'my father-of how-many work-doers-to much him-to sense came, then said, rorī tod; gē dēr onyī sīuāda. Gē khāē atsā geõ bāō dör I standing arising my father-of near will-go, also bread is; I here hungry die. ka gunah lhego. Ente dī ē-õgras "gī dō-bī kög. by-me him-to will-say, "by-me heaven-of-and of-thee sin did-I. Now this worthy kam-lhāzā-du sāhī lhaō."' hyazā kā yō kūri-mī. Gē-bī kã (kēnō) Me-to thy (thy-own) work-doers-of like make." not-am again thy son to-say. Ente du ōhētār tōī, du tārī dō dor īlī. bāŏ atsā ēnö Then arising own father-of near went. Now he far was, him seeing his father-to guāh rę̃. mast au mūthū dōī do dro-re; pity came; he ran; him-by neck-to embrace made, much kies made. ka gunāh lhēga. Ente dī jöge mad hvazā sargō-ē 'gī him to said, 'by-me heaven-of-and of thee sin did. Now this worthy not-is again nokarari kui, 'ruthe ruthe kham kā yō kūri-mī.' Dōu bãē His father-by servants-to said, 'good good clothes taking-out thy son to-say.' VOL. III, PART I.

rāhni; guī guthāb rāhni, konzarī paular hādani. kez dō-bī kham by-you him-to clothes put-on; hand-to ring put, feet-on shoesrāhni; mörē renz shāreni; yez zauani khushī lhauani. du gappā lhāiī put; great calf kill; by-us shall-eat merry shall-make, that speech making du giù yō siē tōi, ente hyazā shring-ri; hiõshtē, ente tūī khosa that my son dead was, now again alive-went; formerly was-lost, now obtained ilī.' Dörā doz khushī lhāter. went.' Then by-them merry made.

Do more yo rhi-ri tōī. $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{\widetilde{u}}$ ghārī chūmh kachā рī (or. ādī) Hisbig son field-in was. Whattimehousecamenear (arrived) gido thātē. Dōrā \mathbf{m} i chāl ī chāgara-bī ād-kutē rhugādē. singing dancing-of also noise heard. Then one servant-to calledasked.'chhī shujad?' Döi dobi kui, kä nuā anjad; ka bāē 'what becoming-is?' Him-by him-to said, 'thy younger-brother come-is; thy father-by tshoī renz shaiādo, dō du rājī-bājī thāle khosīrī.' Du rōshē fat calf killed, of-that for-sake he safe was-obtained.' He angry became töngg mēliādē. Dō hā. dāthī anjī du chhēndī. Dōī bā-bī inside not-went. His father out coming him persuaded. Him-by father-to answer 'dhỗ barsh kã tëhl lbāteg; gĩ kã hugam thuāsĩ ma. lhātē. made, 'so-many years thy service did-I; by-me thy order rejected not. By-thee gī-bī ma randēn (or, rāshī), "kēnō ī lā yārada sādē khushī gappā any-time one goat me-to not "thy-own friends with happy talk gavest, kā dī karū ādī, dōī Abēlā kã māl madam kammārī make." What-time thy this son came, him-by thy property bad works-in kharāb lhājī, kẽ do thali renz shaïaden.' Dōī dōbī kūī. waste making, by-thee him for calf killedest.' Him-by him-to said, 'O son, hamēsh giū kachā todon; giū tod, dū ka shu. Khushi thou always of-me near art; mine is, that thine is. Merry to-make. khushi shūbī itshī toī. Kã dî nuă sīē tōī. ente hvazā merry to-become proper was. Thy this younger-brother dead was, now again shring-ri; tūī hīðshtē, ente khosa ilī.' alive-went; formerly lost-was, now obtained went.'

RANGLŌĪ, GŌNDLĀ, OR TINAN.

The dialect spoken on the banks of the river Chandra is known under various names such as Rangloī, Gondlā, and Tinan. At a distance of about fifteen miles from the confluence of the rivers Chandra and Bhaga it is superseded by the Tibetan dialect spoken in Spiti and neighbourhood.

Rangloi and Bunán, the dialect spoken on the river Bhaga, have usually been returned together under the head of Lähuli, i.e. the language of Lahul. The number of speakers has been estimated for the purposes of this Survey at 2,957. The corresponding figures at the last Census of 1901 were as follows:—

Kangra		•	•		•	•	•						5,069
Mandi	•	•	•	•									196
Kashmir St	ate	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•			•	264
													-
										To	IAT	•	5,529

We are not, as yet, able to state how many out of this total should be assigned to the Rangloi dialect.

AUTHORITY-

DIACK, A. H.,—The Kulu Dialect of Hindi; Some Notes on its grammatical structure, with specimens of the Songs and Sayings current amongst the people, and a Glossary. Lahore 1896. Centains a Rangloi vocabulary on pp. 102 and ff.

Our information about Rangloi is very unsatisfactory. No new materials have been forthcoming, and we therefore only possess the small vocabulary printed in Mr. Diack's Kulu grammar. It is impossible to come to a final decision regarding the position of the dialect. It seems, however, to occupy an intermediate position between Bunán and Manchāṭī, being probably more closely related to the latter than to the former.

So far as we can judge from the scanty materials available Rangloi and Manchātī often closely agree in vocabulary. Compare bang-ṭa, Manchātī bang-ṭa, a bullock; yad, Manchātī yad, a cloth; gyag, Manchātī rag, a day; ram-pa, Manchātī ran, Kanāw'rī ran, to give; Sang-lang, Manchātī Swāng-lang, but Bunán Garzha, Lahul; min, Manchātī min, name; sing, Manchātī sing, wood. The cases in which Rangloī agrees with Bunán as against Manchātī do not seem to be numerous. Compare soti, Bunán soti, Manchātī ti, water.

Manchāṭī has apparently adopted a greater number of Aryan loan-words than Ranglōī. So far as our present information goes, however, the vocabularies of the two dialects are to all appearance closely connected.

A consideration of the few points connected with Rangloi grammar which have been made known point to a similar conclusion.

According to Mr. Diack's list the case suffixes of both dialects are identical, riz., genitive nu, dative ring (compare Kanāw'rī rang, near, to), ablative zi, locative ang.

Mr. Diack gives the following numerals, nyizhi, two; shrummu, three; ngar, five; sa, ten; sas-nyid-chi, seventeen. Manchātī differs in the numeral for two, which is vol. III, part I.

ju!. With regard to the rest we may compare shumu, three; ngai, five; sa, ten, and nyij, seven.

The personal pronouns apparently also agree. Compare gye, Manchātī gye, I; gyu-dong, to me, compare Manchātī gyeu, my; nye-nu, our, compare Manchātī ngye, we; ka, Manchātī ka, thou; ka-nu, Manchātī ka-nu, thy; kye-nu, your, compare Manchātī kye-na, you; do, Manchātī du, he, and so forth. Forms such as gye ing-gu, my own; gyu-dong, to me, show that the genitive suffix in Ranglõī in reality has the form u. Compare the remarks under the head of Manchātī, p. 450. I am indebted to the Rev. A. H. Francke for the list of pronouns in Tinan which follows:—

	Sing	ULAR.	I	UAL.	PLURAL.			
	Ordinary.	Respectful	Exclusive.	Indusive.	Exclusive.	Inclusive.		
lst person .	gye		nyish	eshag	ngyene	ngyenag		
2nd person .	ka	kyenag	•••	kyentsag	***	kyena		
3rd person .	do, du	•••	doku	***	dore	100		

The respectful form kyenag, thou, is probably a plural.

Such indications as can be iderived from the scanty materials at our disposal therefore point to the conclusion that Rangloi is a dialect very closely related to Manchātī.

BUNAN.

Bunán is the dialect spoken on the banks of the river Bhaga, from its confluence with the Chandra and north-eastwards, for about 15 miles, till it meets with the Tibetan dialect spoken in Spiti and the neighbourhood. Towards the south and west it is bounded by Pahārī, and the influence of that language is strongly felt in the lower part of the Bunán territory. The dialect is apparently gradually giving way to Tibetan, and a man of the lower Bhaga will speak to one of the lower Chandra in Tibetan, and not in Bunán.

On the lower Bhaga the dialect is also known under the name of Gahri.

We have no separate information about the number of speakers. Bunán has usually been returned together with Göndlā or Tinan, the dialect spoken on the Chandra under the name of Lāhuļī. The revised estimates for that latter form of speech as made for this Survey were 2,987; but these are far too low, as in the last Census of 1901 the corresponding returns were as follows:—

Kangra	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•			•	5,069
\mathbf{Mandi}	•	•	•	•	•	•	٠.	•	•	•	•		•	196
Kashmir	State	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		•	264
														-
											To	TAL		5,529

Bunán is not a language possessing a literature. The Gospel of St. Mark has been translated into the dialect by the Rev. A. H. Francke. In former days, when the Rājas of Kulu ruled in Lahul, the dialect was written in the Tākrī character, but now the Tibetan alphabet, which is much better suited for the purpose, is used instead.

AUTHORITIES-

JAESCHKE, H. A.,—Note on the Pronunciation of the Tibetan Language. Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. xxxiv, Part i, 1865, pp. 91 and ff. Contains a Bunán vocabulary.

DIACK, A. H.,—The Kulu Dialect of Hindi. Some Notes on its grammatical structure, with specimens of the Songs and Sayings current amongst the people, and a Glossary. Lahore 1896. Contains a Gara, i.e. Bunán vocabulary, on pp. 102 and ff.

Ladakhi Songs edited in co-operation with Rev. S. Ribbach and Dr. E. Shawe by A. H. Francke. Leh 1899-1902. The songs numbered 44-45 are in Bunán.

Bunán is a dialect of the same kind as Kanāw'rī, Lāhulī, and the Almora dialects. A version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son in Bunán has been kindly prepared by the Rev. A. W. Heyde, and a list of Standard Words and Phrases has been forwarded from the district. Both have been carefully revised by the Rev. A. H. Francke, and the remarks which follow are mainly based on his notes.

Pronunciation.—The representation of the various sounds in the specimen is very accurate. The materials available are not, however, sufficient for describing the phonetical system in detail. I shall, therefore, only make some few remarks.

Concurrent vowels are usually not contracted. Thus, nui, new; noi, much; nortai, wealth-having, rich; chhei, warm. Sometimes, however, we find that they are combined into one sound; thus, awa-i and awe, of the father; men, i.e. ma-in, is not, no.

Bunán does not appear to possess aspirated soft consonants. In addition to the palatals ch, chh and j, we also find the palatal affricate \underline{ts} , $\underline{ts}h$, and \underline{dz} . Thus, $\underline{ts}emed$, a girl; $bu-\underline{ts}ha$, a son; $\underline{dz}awo$, a friend.

Hard and soft consonants are sometimes interchanged. Thus, butsha-rog, to the son; gyab-dog, on the back; legs-tog, in the village. In many cases a hard consonant corresponds to a soft consonant in Tibetan; thus, pya, Tibetan bya; tsum, Tibetan 'adzin; prag, Tibetan, brag, etc.

Double consonants are sometimes simplified. Thus, gyab, Tibetan rgyab, back; kar-ma, Tibetan skar-ma, star; nying-jed, Tibetan snying-brje, pity; $z\tilde{a}-i$, Tibetan bzang-ba, good, and so forth.

In other cases double consonants are preserved; thus, pro, anger; stonmo, feast; kyidpo, happy; smad, harlot; grog-po, brook; tradpa, shoe; shrangs, horse; chaks, iron. Occasionally we find a vowel inserted between the concurrent consonants; thus, t*rui or trui, Tibetan drug, six.

It will be seen that Tibetan words are differently treated. Some of them preserve the pronunciation of classical Tibetan; thus, kres, hunger; khral, tax; phyugpo, rich. Others agree with modern Tibetan; thus, tam, classical kram, cabbage; chodpa, classical spyodpa, behaviour. We must conclude that there are two layers of such words, some old and others modern.

The genitive suffix gyi occurs as gyi, gi, kyi, i; thus han-gyi, thy; phag-gi, of the pigs; shrangs-kyi, of the horse; awa-i of the father. Note also ta-i, his, from tal, he. Gy apparently also interchanges with ky, ch, zh, and so forth, in several verbal forms.

We have no information regarding tones and accents in the dialect. A final consonant is sometimes only half pronounced; thus, $ekhye-k^2$, we go.

Article.—The numeral tiki, tii, ti, one, is used as an indefinite article. Thus mugē tezi tiki, famine great a; tsemed tii, a daughter; mi tiki-rog, or, shorter mi ti-kog to a man.

Nouns.—With regard to the formation of nouns we may note the use of the prefix a in nouns denoting relationship. Thus, a-wa, father; a-ma, mother; a-chhe brother; a-gu, uncle, etc. All these words are, however, perhaps Tibetan loan-words.

A suffix <u>tsi</u> is apparently used in words such as lang-<u>tsi</u>, bull; nyi-<u>tsi</u>, sun.

Gender.—Gender is only apparent in the case of animate beings. It is distinguished by using different words or by adding affixes. Thus, mi, man; las-mi, woman shrangs, horse; god-ma, mare; lang-tsi, bull; hambu, cow: khyu, dog; mo khyu, bitch sha-wa, male deer; sha-mo, female deer.

Number.—There are two numbers, the singular and the plural. The plural is not distinguished when it appears from the context. According to the list of words the usus plural suffix is zhi; thus, awa-zhi, fathers; mi zã-i-zhi, good men; hambu-zhi, cow A plural is also formed by adding tehâ-i, all; tsore, all, etc. Thus, shrangs tehâ-horse all, horses; tsemed tsore, daughters; tal-tso-re, they. The final re in tsore perhaps a plural suffix. Tsore-rog can be shortened to tso-rog; thus, yog-po-tso-rog, the servants; dzawo-tso-rog, to the friends.

BUNÁN.

Case.—The base alone is used to denote the subject of intransitive verbs and the object. The object is, however, sometimes followed by the postposition of the dative. Thus, yonday tikog zhu-zhi, having requested a farmer (lit. to a farmer).

The subject of transitive verbs is usually put in the case of the agent. The usual suffix of that case is dzi, $\underline{t}\underline{s}i$, and, after vowels, zi; thus, $ph\bar{e}\underline{t}\underline{s}\bar{e}-\underline{t}\underline{s}ug-\underline{t}\underline{s}i$, by the younger son; awa-zi, by the father. In the plural $\underline{t}\underline{s}hi$ is used; thus, awa- $\underline{t}\underline{e}hi$, by fathers; $\underline{t}\underline{s}\underline{e}-\underline{t}\underline{s}hi$, by daughters.

The pure instrumental is apparently formed as in Tibetan by adding the suffix dang; thus, ra-shi-dang, with ropes.

The dative, locative, and terminative have all been confounded into one case, which is occasionally also used to denote the object of transitive verbs. The suffix of this case is identical with the suffix of the terminative in Tibetan. It has various forms such as rog, dog, tog, kog, and zhog. Rog is only used after vowels. Thus, butsha-rog, to the son; awa-rog, to the father; yog-po-tso-rog, to the servants. After the final i of adjectives, however, dog is used instead; thus, tshāi-dog-chi, all-in-from, from among all.

Dog and tog are apparently used promiscuously after consonants. Tog, however, is generally added after s, r, and after mute consonants, while dog is the regular form of the suffix after l, m, n, and ng. Thus legs-tog, in a country; yar-tog, on the back of; rig-tog-chi, from on the field; tal-dog, to him; kyum-dog, in the house; han-dog, to thee; bang-dog, on the feet. There are, nevertheless, several exceptions to this latter rule.

Kog only occurs in connexion with the indefinite article, and the initial k originally belongs to the numeral tiki, one. Thus, mi ti-kog, to a man. The fuller form tiki-rog is also used.

Zhog is only used in the plural, and probably contains the plural suffix zhi. Thus, awa-zhog, to fathers; tha-zu-zhog, to them.

In roung-gi tib-tsog, on the top of the hill, we apparently have a suffix og used in the same way. The full form is, however, tibtsi-rog.

The suffix of the ablative is chi. Thus, nying-jed-chi, from compassion; khres-tsi, through hunger. Chi is often added to other postpositions. Thus, rig-tog-chi, from in the field; tsemed ti-kog-chi, from with a daughter; awa tiki nung-chi, from with a father, and so forth.

The suffix of the genitive occurs as gyi, gi, kyi, and i. The form gyi is only used after n and l; thus, za-men-gyi, of food; han-gyi, thy. Gi is the common form after soft consonants. Thus, phag-gi, of the swine; roang-gi, of the hill. Kyi occurs after s in legs-kyi, of the village; shrangs-kyi, of the horse.

After vowels the suffix is simply i. Thus, buta-i, of the tree; agu-i, of the uncle; butsha-i, of the son; gyii agu-i bu-tshag tal-gyi shring bag-mag ri-shi-ni, my uncle's son his sister wife-brought-has, the son of my uncle is married to his sister.

The suffix i also occurs in ta-i, his, which is used in addition to talgyi.

Other relations are indicated by means of postpositions. Such are dang, with; de, to; kachang, near; mang, in, to; nang, together with, added to the base; bon-threg, for the sake of; duchi-mang, in the presence of, kho-chi, behind; nung, to, at the place of; nung-chi, from, and so forth, added to the genitive.

In legs wai tikung, to a far country, the postposition is perhaps ung; compare tha-zu-ng, or thazui-nung, there; thong, within; nung, here.

Adjectives.—Most adjectives end in i; thus chhe-i, warm; chho-i, fat; nor-ta-i, wealth-having, rich; tezi, great; tshãi, all; zãi and deï, good; marei, bad; noï, much; waï, far, and so forth. It seems as if such forms were originally genitives Other adjectives end in po; thus, epo, good; mang-po, many; son-po, alive; phyug-po, rich. They are perhaps borrowed from Tibetan. The same is the case with forms such as ches-pa, dear; gyogs-pa, quick; khas-pa, wise, etc.

No termination is added in forms such as *nyeme*, nice, well-tasting; *tunig*, short; yas, right; wus, moist, and so forth. Note the reduplication in forms such as yad-gad, rough; sil-sil, smooth.

Adjectives usually follow, but sometimes also precede, the word they qualify. Thus, $lu\underline{t}\underline{s}i$ chhoī tiki, calf fat a ; len-mi noï, workmen many; shii shrangs-kyi, the white horse's.

The particle of comparison is basta; compare Manchāṭī bē. Thus, tha-zu basta zãi, him than good; tal-gyi a-chho taï a-che basta kyni ni, his brother his sister from tall is. Compare also phos tshãi-dog-chi zãi, clothes all-in-from good, the best cloth.

Numerals.—The numerals are given in the list of words. They usually follow, but occasionally also precede, the noun they qualify. Note the final *i* in most numerals. The Bunán forms most closely correspond to those in use in the Almora dialects. Higher numerals are counted in twenties as in Kanāwarī. Thus, nyis-sai chui, two twenties ten, fifty. In butsha nyis-kying, two sons; nyis-pi awa, two fathers, kying and pi look like generic particles.

Pronouns.	The	following	are	the	personal	pronouns	:
LIUHUUUS.	TTTG	TOTIONATIES	arc	unc	Paran	Promodino	•

	Sing	ULAR.	D	UAL.	PLUBAL.			
	Ordinary.	Bespectful.	Exclusive.	Inclusive.	Exclusive.	Inclusive.		
1st person	gyi		hing	erang	hing-ji, hing-zhi	erang-ji, erang-sh		
2nd person	han	ini	•••	han nyispi		han-zhi, (han-ji)		
3rd person	tal		tal nyispi	•••	tal-ji, tal-shi	•••		

There are also emphatic forms such as inggi, I. Other forms are gyi-zi, by me; gyi-i, my; hing-tshi, by us; han-tshi. by you, tal-zi, by him, etc.

Gyi, I, corresponds to Manchāṭī gye and to jī in the Almora dialects. Hing-zhi, we, should be compared with Byāngsī ing; han, thou, with Chaudāngsī, Byāngsī gan, etc.

Demonstrative pronouns are the, this; nu-zu and tha-zu, that. Note also demonstrative adverbs such as hēnag, thus; noag, so; nung, there; khyag, here; da, now, and so forth.

Interrogative pronouns are su, who? kha, what? gui, where? u-ka, when? ichig, how much, how many? and so forth. Indefinite pronouns are formed from the interrogatives by adding $r\bar{e}$; thus, $su-zi-r\bar{e}$, by anyone; $uka-r\bar{e}$, ever; $kha-r\bar{e}$, any.

There are no relative pronouns. Relative participles are used instead. The suffix tsug is usually added in order to form such participles. It apparently adds definiteness. Thus te-zi-tsug butsha, the elder son; han-gyi butsha ma-gyun-shi-tsug han-gyi len-mi tiki nang tsog-se liku, thee-by son not-worthy-being thy workman one with like make, make me, who am not worthy to be your son, like one of your servants; phē-tsē-tsug-tsi, by the younger one, by him who was the younger one; phos tshāi-dog-chi zãi-tsug, clothes all-in-from the-good-one, the best cloth. The relative participle sometimes precedes the qualified word. Thus, gyi-rog khug-sha-gyun-shi-tsug nor-kul, me-to to-be-got-necessary-being property-share, the share of the property which I shall get.

The interrogative pronouns are sometimes used as relatives. Thus, nor kha-tai-tsug tshãi, all the property he had; kha-dang-kha gyi-rog ni-i-tsug, whatever is mine.

Verbs.—The conjugation of verbs is of the same kind as in Kanāw'rī. The various persons are, to some extent, distinguished by means of pronominal suffixes. In the first person singular gya, or, after vowels, g, is added. Thus, gen-gya, am; khyed-che-g, strike. The latter form consists of a base khyed-cha, the final a having been changed to e under the influence of the suffix g. This g is of course an abbreviated form of gyi, I, and the change of a to e is due to the yi which follows the g in the full form. In lig-ki-za, I did, an infix, ki, which is identical with gyi, is used instead. In a similar way an infix kyu or ku denotes an object of the first person singular in forms such as gyi-rog khyed-kyu-za, me-to struck-me, I was beaten; lig-ku-ni, make for me.

A subject of the second person singular is usually indicated by adding a suffix na; thus, yen-na, art. An infix n is used instead in ni-n-za, wast.

A subject of the third person is not usually indicated by means of any suffix. Sometimes, however, re is added, and this suffix is used in all numbers; thus, lig-cha-re, does; lig-chhag-re, they do.

The plural forms are also used in the dual. The marking of the subject by means of suffixes is not so common as in the singular. A suffix ni is often used in the first and second persons; thus, yen-ni, we are, you are. In many cases the tense suffixes are modified in the dual and plural in such a way that the initial consonant is aspirated and, if it is soft, hardened. Compare lig-za, he did; $lig-\underline{t}\underline{s}ha$, they did; khyed-kya-ta, he will beat; khyed-kya-thad, they will beat; egye-g, I go; ekhye-k', we go. Consonants such as d and g are sometimes added; thus, khyed-kya-tha-d, they will beat; khyed-chha-g-ni, you beat, and so on. I have not, however, been able to detect any rule for their use.

The personal suffixes are often dropped altogether; thus, elen, I went; ni-za, I was.

Verb substantive.—The usual bases of the verb substantive are yen and ni; thus, yen-gya, am; ni-za, was. Other bases are kya and go; thus, kya-men, to be; kya-zhi, having been; goai-<u>ts</u>ha, we were; goán-<u>ts</u>ha, they were.

Finite verb.—On account of the frequent use of pronominal suffixes the conjugation of an ordinary verb makes a rather complex impression.

Present time.—Several suffixes are used to form a present. A common one is cha, vol. III, PART I.

plural chha. Compare the table which follows and which registers the usual forms of the present tense of the verb lig-chum, to make:—

!	Singular.	Dual.	Plural.
lst person exclusive	gyi-zi lig-che-g	hing- <u>ts</u> hi lig-chhe-g	hing-zhi- <u>ts</u> hi lig-chheg
1st person inclusive		erang- <u>ts</u> hi lig-chheg	erang-zhi- <u>ts</u> hi lig-chheg
2nd person	han-zi lig-cha-na	han- <u>ts</u> hi lig-chhag-ni	han-shi- <u>ts</u> hi lig-chhag-ni
3rd person	tul-zi lig-cha-re	tal- <u>ts</u> hi lig-chhag (-re)	tal-zhi- <u>ts</u> hi lig-chhag (-r e)

Cha is probably the suffix of a participle or verbal noun. The same is the case with ya in eage-g, 1 go; e-ya-na, goest; kya in khyed-kya ni-za, beating was, and so on. Compound forms are zhod-chi ni, having-sat is, he lives, and so on.

In forms such as yen, is, are; yen-gya, am, the base alone is used as a present.

Past time.—The most common suffix of the ordinary past is za, dual and plural $\underline{ts}ha$; thus, lig-ki-za, I did; lig-za-na, didst; lig-za, did; dual and plural 1. $lii-\underline{ts}ha$; 2. $lig-\underline{ts}ha-ni$; 3. $lig-\underline{ts}ha$.

A perfect is formed by adding men; thus, khyed-men-gya, I struck, I have struck; lig-men-na, hast done; lig-men, has done, have done. Such forms correspond to the Tibetan perfect ending in pa-yin. Another perfect is formed by adding ta, plural tad; thus, lig-ta-na, hast done; lig-tad-ni, you had done. This perfect is only used in the second and third persons. It corresponds to the Ladakhi perfect in tog.

A suffix len occurs in e-len, went; eleni, wentest; gal-len-gya, I transgressed, and so forth.

Note finally the suffix ag in zug-chho-ag, they began, and forms such as goai- $\underline{ts}ha$, we were; goan- $\underline{ts}ha$, you, they, were.

Future.—The suffix of the future is kya-ta or ka-ta, i.e. ta added to a participle ending in kya or ka; thus, khyed-kya-ta, I shall strike; lig-ka-ta-na, thou wilt do. Ta becomes that in the plural; thus, lig-ka-theq, we shall do; lig-ka-thad-ni, you will do; lig-ka-thad, they will do.

Imperative.—The base alone is used as an imperative; thus, za, eat; ra, come. In the plural ni is added; thus, lig-ni, make ye. An imperative suffix ra occurs in forms such as zho-ra, sit; khye-ra, beat; pho-ra, put on. An indirect or direct object of the first person is often indicated by adding ku, after vowels u, and a suffix a in the same way often refers the action to an object of the second or third persons; thus, lig-ku, make me, make for me; lig-ku-ni, make ye me; da-u, give me; li-a, make him; da-a, give him. The suffix a is also used in neuter verbs; thus, ela, go; grela, run.

The particle of prohibition is tha; thus, tha li-a, make not; tha grel-a, run not.

Verbal nouns and participles.—The Bunán verb, like that of other Tibeto-Burman languages, is properly a verbal noun. The base itself is freely used as a noun and case suffixes are added. It is a consequence of the nominal character of the verb that it is difficult to distinguish between what we might call participles and verbal nouns.

The suffix ji, which is often pronounced zhi, is very commonly used to form a conjunctive participle. Compare zhu-ji, asking; el-ji, having gone; shi-cha khom-ji, to

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die finished-having, having died, etc. If there is more than one subject ji is changed to chhi; thus, thad-chhi, making merry. In neuter verbs ji is usually replaced by chi or shi, plural chhi; thus, howang-shi, having taken place; shan-shi, having arisen; tab-shi, returning, etc.

The postposition de is used to form a kind of infinitive of purpose; thus, el-de maphod-za, go not could, he could not go; bing-de gyun-ted-chi, to-fill necessary-thinking, wishing to fill; sem thad-de da-za, mind to-be-merry giving, making merry.

The postposition $r\bar{e}$ is added to bases ending in a vowel. Thus, $za-r\bar{e}$ khom-ji eating having-finished, having devoured.

The postposition nang, with, forms a kind of conditional mood. Thus, ring-nang, saying-with, if you say.

A common suffix which is used to form verbal nouns and participles occurs in various forms such as kya, ka, kha, cha, sha. It is probable that we have here to do with more than one suffix. We may perhaps compare the base kya, to become, and Purik chas.

Such forms are properly verbal nouns. We must, however, sometimes translate them as verbal nouns, and sometimes as participles. Thus, gyi-rog khyed-kya ni-za, me-to beating was, I was beaten; ma gor-ka, no-tarrying, without tarrying; roag-ka-re, grazing-is, he is grazing; hin-zhi e-kha goaik', our going is, we go; chol-cha, to appoint; shi-cha khom-ji, dying finished-having, having died; han-zi khyed-cha-re, thee-by striking-is, thou strikest; khug-sha gyun-shi-tsug, getting necessary-being, which should be got.

A very common verbal noun is formed by adding the suffix chum, i.e. cha and a suffix m which is identical with the m-suffix of the Almora dialects. Thus, ka-chum to turn; kre-chum, to bite; tig-chum, to cover; khug-chum-bon-threg, finding-on-account-of, because he has been found.

Forms such as tib-men, struck, contain the same suffix m and probably the verb substantive. Men is a very common suffix of verbal nouns. Thus, za-men, food; dod-men, to meet; gyags-men, to listen; toa-men, to cut grass; phya-men, to speak and so forth.

A common verbal noun, which apparently has the meaning of a past, is formed by adding a suffix s. It is sometimes added to the base, and sometimes also to the suffixes mentioned in the foregoing. Thus, ra-s-tang, having-come-on; do-s-tang, being-found on; lo-chi-s-tang, on having said.

<u>Tsoas</u> in <u>tsoas-thir-za</u>, divided-given-was, perhaps contains the same suffix. Compare, however, astog, time; khyed-kya-astog, when beating; leb-cha-astog, when arriving.

A present participle active is formed by adding chi-pa, plural chi-pa-ji, and a past participle passive by adding shi-tsug, plural shi-tsug-shi; thus, lig-chi-pa, doing; lig-shi-tsug, done.

Passive voice. There is no passive voice. 'I am struck' must be translated 'somebody struck me.'

Negative particle.—The negative particle is a prefixed ma and before imperatives, tha. Thus, ma da-za, he did not give; tha da, give not.

Order of words.—The order of words is subject, object, verb. Adjectives and numerals usually fellow, and genitives precede the noun they qualify.

For further details the student is referred to the specimen which follows and to the list of Standard Words and Phrases on pp. 533 and if.

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[No. 43.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

BUNĀN.

(DISTRICT LAHUL.)

(Rev. A. W. Heyde, 1899.)

Miti-kog bu-tsha nyis-kying tan-ji, phē<u>ts</u>ē-<u>ts</u>ug-<u>ts</u>i awa-rog, 'gyi-i Man one-to tena 802 being, the-younger-by father-to. 'my awa, gyi-rog khug-sha-gyun-shi-tsug nor-kal gyi-rog da-u.' noag to-be-found-proper-being property-share me-to give.' 80 lod-ii. a-wa-zi tshoas-thir-za. nor Nung-chi noi ma gor-ka having-said, father-by property divided-gave. Then much not tarrying phē-tsē-tsug-tsi nor tshãi du-ji legs wa-i ti-kung el-za. the-younger-by property allgathering country far one-to went. chhud-zos-tog Tshãi thir-tad. Nor kha-ta-yi-tsug tshãi za-rē Allwater-into gave. Property whatever allto-eat tha-zu legs-tog mu-gē tezi tiki ra-ji khre-za. Yon-dag finishing thatcountry-in famine great one coming hungered. Farmer tikog zhu-ji, tha-zu-zi phag roag-tsi chol-ja rig-tog thir-za. one-to requesting, him-by swine herdsman appointing field-into sent. Nung phag-gi za-men kha nii-tsug-dang in-zii dan bing-de gyun ted-chi There swine-of food what being-with himself-of belly to-fill mustthinking su-zi-re ma da-za. Nung-chi tal dran-pa so-ii hēnag mi-za, 'gyi-i awa-rog anyone not gave. he memory refreshing thus thought, 'my Then father-to Tha-zu-zhog za-men-gyi long-chod mok'i-ni, len-mi no-i goag. gyiwork-men many are. Them-to .food-of plenty much-is, I-on-thekhyag khres-tsi shi-cheg. Da shan-shi awa-i du-chi-mang other-hand here hunger-by die. Now arising father-of presence-in el-ji, "gyi-i awa. nam-nang han-gyi du-chi-mang dig-pa having-gone, " my father, heaven-and your presence-in sinlig-ji han-gyi bu-tsha ma-gyun-shi-tsug han-gyi len-mi tiki having-done you-by not-worthy-being 80n thywork-man one nang tsog-se liku," noag zhus-ka-ta. mi-ji, shan-shi awa-i du-chiwith like make." thuswill-request,' thinking, arising father-of presel-za. mang Awa-zi rē wa-i-chi ra-i thang-ji nying-jed-chi went. Father-by also far-from coming seen-having compassion-feeling ka-chang bu-<u>ts</u>ha grel-chi khoang-gul-tog khril-shi tal-dog a-u da-za. 20% near running neck-on clasping him-to kissgave.

Nung-chi bu-tsha-zi tal-dog, 'gyi-i awa, gyi-zi nam-nang han-gyi du-chihim-to, 'my father, me-by heaven-and son-by thy presence. mang dig-pa lig-ki-za. Tan-chi khoreg han-gyi bu-tsha ma-gyun-shi,' have-done. To-day-from after 8in 3027 son not-worthy-am, zhu-za. Awa-zi noag yog-po-tso-rog, · da phos tshii-dog chi requested. thus Father-by servants-to. ' now cloth all-in-from khyag rid-chhi tal-dog pho-ra; lag-tog la-sub, bang-dog here brought-having him-on good-one put; hand-on ring. trad-pa rē tsua. Nung-chi lu-tsi enho-i ti-ki pur-ii za-ni, sem shoes also Then put. calf fa! cre killing est, mind thad-chhi jod-ni. Tha-zu kha-i bon-threg ring-nang, gyi-i the bu-tsha sit.That what-of being-merry for said-if, mythis 50% son-po kya-za; hyod-ji, tab-shi khug-chum-hon-thr-g.' khom-ji. shi-cha dying finished-having, alive again found-being-on-account-of? became; lost,noag lo-chis-tang tal-tso-re thad-chhi ston-mo lig-cha zug-chhong. thussaying-on they-all merrilyfeast making began.

te-zi-tsug bu-tsha rig-tog-chi Nu-zu as-tog tab-shi kyum kachang elder-the That time-at field-in-from returning 80n house near leb-cha-astog rol-mo nang khori-pa-i kad yen-chis-tang yog-po tikog dancing-of arriving-when music andsound hearing-in servant one-to shru-za. Yog-po-zi, 'han-gyi akstag-ji, 'the kha ven?' bed is ? ? calling, 'this whatasked.Servant-by, 'your younger-brother bu-<u>ts</u>ha ra-s-tang awa-zi tha-zu kham de-i-dog tab-shi do-s-tang thathealth good-in coming-on father-by 80n back finding-on chho-i ti-ki pur-za,' lo-chi tsag-shi yen-ji pro lu-tsi noag thong fat killed, thussaying hearing calf one anger entering inside phod-za. Awa tshig jam-mi-rog, 'thong-mang ra,' phi-lag ra-ji el-de ma Father outside coming words mild-with, could. not'within come,' aoing lod-za. Bu-tsha-zi, 'awa. lo thēleg ti-ki as-tog gyi-zi said. Son-by, father, year 80-many α time-in me-by 80 li-ki-ji han-gyi ag-tog-chi u-ka-re han-gyi yog-po ma gal-len-gya, mouth-in-from making your servant ever not transgressed, your gyi-i dza-wo-tso-re-dang thad-chi skyid-po lig-chum-bon-threg la-la-tsi han-zi friends-with making-sake-for merry happy kidthee-by ma dan-za-na, noag lod-za. ' Da han-gyi phē<u>ts</u>ē bu-tsha rē tiki gavest. said. ' Now thus thy younger not one even 80H chhud-zos-tog thir-ji tha-zu smad-tshong-ma-tso-re nang nor tabwith property water-into having-thrown havingharlots that tal-dog lu-tsi chho-i dan-za-na,' noag lod-za. Nung-chi shi awa-zi him-to calf fat gavest, 80 said. Then father-by returned

lod-za, 'gyi-i bu-tsha, han ukarê gyi nang nyam-po zho-s-dang, kha-dang-kha said, thou always me with together living-in, ' my son, whatever rē ni. gyi-rog ni-i-tsug, tha-zu han-dog Da han-gyi shi-cha me-to being, thatthee-to also is. Now thyyounger-brother dyingkhug-shi-tsug-tog khom-ji, son-za; hyod-cha khom-ji, thad-chi having-finished, lived; lost-being found-being-in having-finished, merry skyid-po lig-cha gyun,' noag lod-za. making proper,' happy thussaid.

RANGKAS OR SAUKIYĀ KHUN.

Rangkas or Saukiyā is stated to be a denomination of the people who carry on trade with Tibet. Their *khun* or dialect has been reported to be spoken in one village of Malla Johar, and four villages of Malla Danpur. The number of speakers has been estimated for the purposes of this Survey at 614.

Malla Johar, i.e., Upper Johar, is the north-western corner of Almora. It is bounded on the north and west by Garhwal and on the east by Tibet and Parganah Darma. Malla Danpur is situated to the west and south-west of Johar. The home of the Rangkas dialect is accordingly to the west of Dārmiyā.

I cannot find any corroboration of the statement that the Rangkas or Saukiyā are the people who carry on trade with Tibet, and I am not sure that it is correct. The Bhōṭiās of the neighbouring districts all carry on trade with that country. The Bhōṭiās of Johar, however, have the privilege of choosing their own markets, while the rest are confined to some particular mart in Tibet. Now Rakas is the name of one of the villages of Johar, and the Bhōṭiās of that district are known as Sokpas. Those names have perhaps something to do with the denomination of the dialect. At all events, we can safely assume that Rangkas is the form of speech used by Bhōṭiās all over Upper Johar and Upper Danpur.

Two specimens and a list of Standard Words and Phrases have been forwarded from the district. Babu Gobind Prasad, B.A., who has despatched them, expresses grave doubts about their correctness. He has not, therefore, ventured to accompany them by a translation. It is, however, possible to derive a general idea of the nature of the dialect from them, and I have therefore added an interlinear translation, though the meaning is not quite certain in all places. In the materials I have corrected all obvious mistakes such as, e.g., $khami\ kh\bar{a}$ instead of $khamir\ b\bar{a}$. On the whole, however, I have left them as I have received them.

Pronunciation.—The phonetical system is broadly the same as in the neighbouring dialects of Almora. The spelling of the specimens is, however, extremely inconsistent. Thus, s and s, \bar{e} and $y\bar{a}$, and so forth are used promiscuously.

Long and short vowels are often interchanged; thus, $j\bar{\imath}$ and ji, I. Similarly, the various vowels are often interchanged. Compare ji, $j\bar{e}$, $jai-g\bar{o}$, my; li-s, $l\bar{e}-s$, and lai-s, said; $m\bar{\imath}-s$ and mai-s, by a man; $s\bar{o}$, $s\bar{u}$, $s\bar{e}$, and s, the suffix of the case of the agent; $hv\bar{a}sas$ and $ka-h\bar{o}sas$, was lost; $r\bar{o}$, $r\bar{\imath}$, ri, and r, the suffix of the terminative; nya and $n\bar{e}$, the suffix of a conjunctive participle, and so forth. It is impossible to decide in each case whether such uncertainty in the writing corresponds to a similar uncertainty in the pronunciation.

The meaning of the sign which I have transliterated by the Anunasika is not certain. In words such as $rh\tilde{a}$, horse; $chub\tilde{a}$, to, and others, it is perhaps written instead of ng. In other cases it seems to denote a nasal pronunciation of the vowel; thus, $h\tilde{a}t$, camel; $si-ch\tilde{a}n$, dying.

Hard and soft consonants are apparently very freely interchanged; thus, g and k, the suffix of the genitive; $r\bar{a}$ -ch and $r\bar{a}$ -j, came; dhuk and tuk, all; bhung-ny \bar{a} and pun, tall.

R is interchanged with r; thus, gulpair and gulpair, ever; dagar and dagar, with. S sometimes interchanges with ch; thus in the suffix of past time.

Note also the frequent aspiration in words such as mha, not; $hv\bar{a}nam$, far; $hv\bar{e}$, that; $rh\bar{a}$, bring; $rh\bar{u}$, ask; $rh\bar{a}$, horse, and so forth.

We have no information regarding accentuation or tones.

Article.— $T\bar{a}$, a shorter form of the numeral $t\bar{a}$ - $k\bar{a}$, one, and indefinite pronouns such as $kham\bar{i}$, khami- $r\bar{i}$, and khami-r, some; gub, some, and $g\bar{a}r$, some, are used as indefinite articles; thus, $t\bar{a}$ naukar, a servant; $kham\bar{i}$ $b\bar{a}$, a father; khamir $m\bar{i}$, a man; gub $rh\bar{a}$, a horse; $g\bar{a}r$ $s\bar{a}$ -khu, in a village.

Nouns.—There are no instances in the materials available of any suffixes or prefixes used in order to distinguish gender. Different words are used for that purpose. Thus, $l\tilde{a}$, bull; $b\tilde{e}n$, cow: khvi, dog; $chhv\tilde{a}r$, bitch. Forms such as $rh\tilde{a}$ bachhai, mare, lit. horse-woman, show that Rangkas in this respect agrees with other neighbouring forms of speech.

Number.—The plural is not distinguished by means of any suffix when it can be inferred from the context. When required, a suffix chan, $ch\tilde{a}$ or $ch\tilde{a}$ appears to denote the plural; thus, $b\tilde{e}$ -chan, the bides; khvi- $ch\tilde{a}$, dogs; $b\tilde{e}$ - $ch\tilde{a}$ -k, of the skins. Compare Dārmiyā. In $khamiri\ ni$ - $ch\tilde{a}$ -k (i.e., $m\bar{i}$ - $ch\tilde{a}$ -k) $ni\hat{s}$ $s\bar{e}ri$, one man-of two sons, the same suffix has apparently been used in order to form an honorific singular. A kind of plural can also be effected by adding words such as titi, mhan, many, and so forth; thus, $b\bar{a}$ titi, fathers; $mhan\ b\bar{a}$, fathers.

Case.—The various cases are apparently often interchanged. Thus both the genitive and the dative are used as accusatives, the genitive also occurs with the function of a dative, and so forth. The regular case system is apparently as follows.

The nominative and the accusative, i.e., the cases of the subject of intransitive verbs and of the object, are not distinguished by means of any suffix, although the genitive and the dative sometimes occur in the function of the object. Thus, jal-gō chhē-tas, his share(-of) he divided; u-chabã u-g lō-r lai-s, him(-to) his bosom-to clasped.

The subject of transitive verbs is usually put in the case of the agent, which is formed by adding the suffix $s\tilde{o}$, $s\tilde{u}$, $s\tilde{\iota}$, or s; thus, $b\tilde{a}$ - $s\tilde{o}$ $l\tilde{e}$ -s, father-by said, the father said; $ny\tilde{a}pan$ -su $l\tilde{\iota}$ -s, small-by said, the younger said.

The same form is also used as an instrumental; thus, chābuk-sō, with stripes.

Instead of s we occasionally find forms such as sich or syach. Thus, sud mi-sich $b\bar{e}\ kh\bar{o}$ -s, simple man-by skin took; $kh\tilde{u}$ -mi-syach, by the thieves.

The usual suffix of the dative is $chab\tilde{a}$ or $chub\tilde{a}$, also written j- $b\tilde{a}ng$ and even j- $chub\tilde{a}$; thus, $b\bar{a}$ - $chub\tilde{a}$, to the father; $b\tilde{a}$ -j- $chub\tilde{a}$, to the father; u-j- $b\tilde{a}ng$, to him. In u-g khamiri-s khari ma $d\bar{a}$ -s, his anyone-by anything not gave, no one gave him anything, the genitive has apparently been used instead of the dative, or else there is a dative suffix g, k.

An ablative is formed by adding the suffix pattī or batī. Thus, hvānam pattī, from a distance; khamī chamī batī from a daughter.

The suffix of the genitive takes the forms $g\bar{o}$, gu, g, and k; thus, $b\bar{a}$ - $g\bar{o}$, of the father; $m\bar{i}$ -g, of a man.

So far as we can judge from the specimens, the terminative is commonly used as a locative. It is formed by adding the suffix $r\bar{o}$, $r\bar{i}$, $r\bar{i}$, or r; thus, $la-r\bar{o}$, on the hand; $am-r\bar{i}$, and am-ar, on the way; $phu-r\bar{i}$, in the cave. Note $phu-\bar{a}r$, in the cave.

Other locative suffixes are su, sū, or similar forms, and khū; thus, khung-su, at the bottom; $s\tilde{a}-kh\tilde{u}$, in the village.

Other relations are indicated by means of postpositions. Such are badla, instead of; bhitar, inside; gan-syu, before; gund-patti, between; hyang-eu, behind; hvē, from; khũ-syu and khvã-syũ, under; lēkhā and lēkh, for the sake of; rakshā, with; sāman, before; yart, yaran, on, and so forth. Postpositions are sometimes added to the base and sometimes to the genitive.

Adjectives. - Adjectives precede the qualified noun in the nominative. In nyāpan-sō sērī dhuk-chhan dū-nyā, the small-by son all gathering, the younger son having gathered all, the case suffix has been added to the adjective nyāpan and not, as we would expect, to the noun.

The particle of comparison is hvē; thus, u pi-khan u rhangsyā hvē mhan mhan sini, his brother his sister from more tall is; dukh hvē jhyān, all from good, best. Compare Chamba Lāhulī vē.

Numerals.—The first numerals are found in the list of words. They precede the noun they qualify. Ninsa chi, fifty, literally means 'two twenties ten.' Nanas, hundred, should perhaps be na-nsa, five twenties.

Pronouns.—The usual	forms of the r	personal pronouns are	as follows:
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	I	₩e	Thou	You	He	They
Nom.	ji, jē, jin	nung	ga	gani	hcē, u	usi, hvi-chan
Agent	ji -s	nung-s	ga-sō, ga-sū, ga-s, gassai, gussu	gani-sõ	u-sū, usī, u-s, hvēdasu	usi-s, hvö- chan-s
Genit.	ji-g, jai-gō, jē, jyū	nung-g	gō-g, g z- g, gō	gani-g	u-g, ö-g, ö, hvēdö-g	usi-gō, hvē- chā-g

Besides, several other forms occur, such as jē-van, by me; hvē-yart-patļī, by him, lit. that-on-from, and so forth. Most of them are due to misunderstanding in the translation or to misreading of the original draft. Others are simply slightly different forms of those registered in the above table, and they will be easily understood when met with.

The Aryan loan-word apnō, apnō-gō, apnō-k, own, is used as a reflexive pronoun.

The pronoun u, ō, he, is sometimes used in order to repeat a preceding noun before postpositions or governing words. Thus, ō-g ō-bā-g dayā rā-ch, his his-father-of pity came; hvēda-ś garīb mī u-chabā rhū-sas, him-by poor man him-to asked, he asked the poor man; i garīb mī ō-dā-s, this poor man his-envy-by, from envy of this poor man. Compare the corresponding use of pronominal prefixes in several Nepal dialects, in Kuki-Chin, and so on.

Demonstrative pronouns are i, ido, id, and e, this; hve, hveda, u, that.

The interrogative pronouns are formed from the bases kha, and gw. kha-mī, who? gu-dai-baļī, from whom? kha, what? gu-lã, how much? how many? gumta-ganë, how-having-done? how? and so forth. By adding ri or r the interrogative bases are made indefinite. Thus, khami-ri and khamir, a certain; gvā-r, a certain; kha-rī, khar, anything, some.

Relative pronouns are je, jai, jaid, jaidat, jaido, who; jai-han-to, whatever. They are Aryan loan-words. Thus, kō-su-s jaidas suar jan-sich, by the husks which the swine ate; sud mī jaidō-g tā nyāpan chyam, a foolish man whose one small house, who possessed a small house; jē-g jē sin, gō lhē, mine what is, thine is.

Verbs.—The list of Standard Words and Phrases contains a series of verbal forms which do not occur in the specimens. On the whole, however, the conjugation in Rangkas is apparently less complicated than in the neighbouring dialects of Darma, Chaudangs and Byangs.

There is the same tendency to distinguish the person of the subject in the verb, especially in the case of the second person. The past tense is sometimes formed by means of reduplication of the base, as is also the case in Chaudangsī and Byāngsī.

Verb substantive.—The verb substantive is formed from the bases lhē, ni, and si. The following forms occur:—

	Present.	Past.	
Sing: 1.	sisi	8₹S	
2.	śiśin; lhēn	si-nau-s	
3.	sin, śini; ni; lhē	sis, sich, sya-ch, si-chas; ka-lhig, lhing-chu	
Plur. 1.	na-si-su	áis	
2. sîsîn		śi-nai-ś	
3.	sîni; lhyã, i.e. lhē	śich, lhē	

Other forms are śis, shall be; *lhē-m ching-ni*, to be is proper; *ka-lhain*, (in order that) we might be (merry), and so forth.

The bases of the verb substantive are freely used in the formation of the various tenses of finite verbs.

Present time.—The specimens contain very few forms of the present. In the first person singular we find the compound form sichan sis, I am dying; and in the second person rhai-san, thou livest, occurs. Both contain the verb substantive, rhai-sa-n also the suffix n of the second person. It will be seen that there is here no suffix denoting the first person.

The third person singular is formed in various ways. The base alone is sometimes used; thus, ding, he falls. In other cases the suffixes ni and t or d are added. Thus, rai-ni, he comes; $hv\bar{e}-t$, he is grazing; $khv\bar{a}-d$, he digs.

The list of words contains several additional forms; thus, $s\bar{a}t\bar{\iota}$, I strike; $s\bar{a}\cdot ti\cdot l\bar{a}$, I am striking; $di\cdot \acute{s}$, I go; $sai\cdot t\cdot na\cdot l\bar{a}$, thou strikest; $di\cdot n$, he goes; $sai\cdot ta\cdot l\bar{a}$, we strike; $di\cdot s\cdot \bar{u}ng$, we go; $sai\cdot ti\cdot nal\bar{a}$, you strike; $di\cdot sin$, you go; $sait\cdot k\bar{\iota}$, they strike; $d\bar{\imath}\cdot n$, they go.

Past time.—The common suffix of past time is s or su; thus, $l\bar{\imath}$ -s, he said; $g\bar{a}$ -su, he made. In the first person an i apparently precedes the s, and in the second person n, nau, nai, or nu is inserted. Thus, gai-s, I did; $t\bar{a}l$ -i-s, I transgressed; tang-n-su, gottest; kur-nau-ś, or kur-nai-ś, broughtest; $d\bar{a}$ -nu-ś, gavest.

Instead of s we often find ch; thus, $r\bar{a}$ -ch, and also $r\bar{a}$ -j, he came; $d\bar{e}$ -ch, he went.

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Compound suffixes are sas, chas, and tas; thus, rhū-sas, asked; thō-chas, demanded; gā-tas, made. There are no instances of such forms in the first and second persons.

The s-suffixes are sometimes used in connexion with a prefix hz; thus, kz-lunch, got angry; ka- $h\tilde{o}$ -sas, he was lost; ka- $rh\tilde{o}$ -chas, he was alarmed.

The base is sometimes reduplicated in the past, and suffixes such as $d\bar{i}$, ti, and n, all probably various forms of the copula, are added. Thus, $ga-g\bar{a}-d\bar{i}$, he has done; $ga-g\bar{a}-ti$, thou gavest; $di-d\bar{i}-n$, he went.

Compound forms are rhai-n-sich, lived; jā-n-sich, were eating, and so forth.

Note, finally, isolated forms such as *lhangyān*, squandered; *thum-syā*, gathered; manai-nē, entreated; tā-bēn, tā-pach, and thai-pach, went, and so forth. Several additional forms will be found in the list of words.

Future.—The present is apparently also used as a future; thus, di- δ , I shall go; $l\bar{e}$ -ti, I shall say. According to the list of words the most common future suffix seems to contain a t.

Imperative.—The base alone is often used as an imperative; thus, kur, take; $d\bar{u}$. give; chuksan- $g\bar{a}$, cloth make, put on. Common imperative suffixes are $n\bar{e}$, and $t\bar{e}$, the latter also occurring as tai and dai. Thus, $d\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{e}$, give; $d\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{e}$, give; $g\bar{a}$ -tai, make: gvi-dai, bind.

The list of words contains several additional forms. No instances of their use are, however, given.

The materials available do not contain any example of a negative imperative.

Verbal nouns.—The base alone is used as a verbal noun. Thus, $h\bar{\nu}$, to feed; tung, to drink. The usual suffix is m or $m\bar{\nu}$; thus, sai-m chyung-ni, to strike is proper; di- $m\bar{\nu}$ -k man ma $g\bar{a}$ -s, going-of mind not made, he did not want to go; $p\bar{a}$ -mi-k, measuring for, in order to measure.

A suffix t apparently occurs in *pyaugat*, to fill. $L\bar{e}$ -san, word, is properly a past participle of $l\bar{e}$, to say.

Participles.—Participles which are used as adjectives are formed by adding n, past san, to the base; thus, $j\bar{a}$ -n sich, eating were; $sich\bar{a}$ -n sis, dying I am; $t\bar{a}$ -san $b\bar{o}jh$, the left load, the load which had been left; $py\bar{u}$ -san, filled, full.

The suffix s, $s\bar{e}$, ch, chai, chai, or $ch\bar{e}$ forms ecnjunctive participles. Thus, yan-s, hearing; $r\bar{a}$ -ch, coming; $thuk-s\bar{e}$, returning; $d\bar{i}$ -chai, going; khisai-cha, despairing; $hr\bar{s}$ - $ch\bar{e}$, arising. Such forms are occasionally also used as adjectives; thus, khu- $r\bar{a}ch$ $m\bar{a}l$, theft-come property, stolen property.

Other conjunctive participles are formed by adding the suffixes $n\tilde{e}$, $(ny\tilde{a})$ and $t\tilde{e}$; thus, $v\tilde{i}$ - $n\tilde{e}$, calling; $rh\tilde{a}$ - $n\tilde{e}$, bringing; $d\tilde{u}$ - $ny\tilde{a}$, gathering; $h\tilde{v}$ - $t\tilde{i}$, leaving. In $p\tilde{i}$ -k kurs, taking up carried, a suffix k has apparently been added. Compare $p\tilde{v}$ -k sichas, having died was, had died.

Negative particle.—The negative particle is a prefixed ma, or, sometimes, mu. Thus, ma dā-ś, did not give; ma tālis, I did not transgress; lėm-um mu-ni, to say (worthy) not am.

Order of words.—The order of words is the same as in connected forms of speech, subject, object, verb. Adjectives and numerals precede the qualified word.

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For further details the student is referred to the specimens which follow.

[No. 44.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

RANGKAS OR SAUKIYĀ KHUN.

SPECIMEN I.

(DISTRICT ALMORA.)

LHANGTI SERI-GÖ RAMKÖ. PRODIGAL SON-OF STORY.

Gar khā Khamiri ni (i.e. mi)-chã-k nisī sērī. khā ramkō, nyāpan-su And what what Certain man-of two 80N8. story, jāydād-pattī bā-j-chubã 'hĕ gō jai-gō li-s. bā. jal apnō 0 father, property-from said. thy share his father-to my me chyung-gani jē ial ji dā.' Gār hvai-yart-patțī dā. iai ii Andwhat mine proper-is my share me give.' that-on-from give, Gār apnö jal-go chhē-tas. mhan usi-gundā-pattī jyā mha lē. his share divided. And manu days notthem-between-from were. dhuk-chhan duk-chhan dū-nyā hvānam dēś tābēn nyāpan-sō sērī allall gathering far country went younger-by 80% madan māl-tāl rhaich apnō-gō lhangyan. Gār hvä-r gār property squandered. and there wrong living oron And lhã-tas, hvē tuk-chhan-dhuk hvē dēś pūn kāl parēch. iab had-spent, when he allthatcountry big famine fell, ka-lhij. ũ hvě děá khamir tang Gār jhyain gār 11 destitute thatAnd he and ħе became. country 80me good mi rakshā dī-chai nhai-ch, gār u-sũ u-chubã apan rai-r suar withman going stayed, and him-by him his field-to swine Găr hvidašu hīsē hō Dã-8. kosus jaidas sungar iänsich apnō to-graze seut. And those husks-with which suine gladly ate own dāś. dan pyangat νā unsich. gār u-g khamiri-ś khari ma belly to-fill he (?) wished, and him any-one-by anything notgave. Gar jab hvē annõ dēś-chubã chyang-ra-ch hvēr-pattī lē-s. 'iē when he his senses-to And returned there-from said. 'my hā-k naukar Ö dan-syu iā-m mhan iänsich. gār iē servants father-of their belly-from food more eat. and. I sīchãn sis. Ji hrĩ-chē apno bā-chubã phi diś n-chnhã gār 1 dying am. rising hunger own father-to will-go him-to and le ti. "hē bā. ii-s Bhagvan machchhā mu-ni gār "0 father. will-saw. God's me-by will (?) not-is and

Gār sāman pāp gaiś. jē phir gõ śērī lēm-um mu-ni. gō of-thee before sin did. And Ι again thy to-say not-am. 80% naukar gā-tai." Gār apnö-k bā-g chubă tā apnō Jō (i.e. jī) servant make." And 010% father-of one near own Мe Gẵn (i.e. gẵr) hvē hvānam sīs, ba-s hvānam-pattī hrichē dēch. u far father-by And ħe was, hia far-from arising went. u-chaba davā rā-ch, gär hver-patti sē-nvē ō-bā-g on-s, gar o-g his-father-of pity came, and there-from running kim and his sau. dās. Gär sērī-su u-chabă chuk lai-s gār lō-r u-g andAnd non-by him-to ki88gave. clasped bosom-to his Bhagvan machchyā yam ji-s bā, 'hē lē-s. according-to (?) God's will (?) me-by father, '0 said. (i.e. samnē?) Gār jē pāp gē-s. unnanë gō-g mu-ni gār Ani I sin did. thy before thy and not-is bā-sō apnö-gö raukar lē-s, mu-ni.' Gār limum sēri servants father-by 01016 said. not-am. And to-say 80% chuksan-gā. rhā-nē 'dukh-hvē jhyān chuksam thai-në rhā gār i taking-out bring and this bringing put-on. robe all-from goodohugsan-gā. Gär gār likë-r paul lag-chhyab lā-rō ō Gār And shoes put. and feet-on ring hand-on his And pōk-sichas, jyū sērī gār phir chyung-nī. Ka-lai, i jā-m dead-was. and again Why, this my 80% proper-is. my eating tanch. Aiai hvai ka-hēsas hisam hvē ka-hvāsas, thyāk tanch: they feasting is-found. Then merry was-lost, again he is-alive: ka-lēs. made.

hã áyach. Gār u ră-ch rai-r pach sērī Ηã ŏ-g And then he coming 10G8. field-in elder 80% his And togā-bājā-tus gar chyang-ra-j, u-su ninam hã gvã. rā-j music him-by and returned. near coming home and naukar vi-në tā Gār 11-8 áabd sunais. nāchē-ch servant called-having him-by ONE And sound heard. dancing-of u-chabang kha-sin?' Gär น-ธนั hvě thvā rhū-sas. 'idō-g him-to what-is? him-by And that meaning (?) this of asked. ga-gā-dī; kha-lai, jhyain bā-880 Gŏ pi-khan rā-ch. ʻ gö lės, has-made; why, father-by good Thy brother came. 'thy said. gär u-8 bhitar kalunch jhyain tang-s.' Gār u ũ 11-6 inside got-angry and him-by found. And well him kim-by bhai rā-ch gar bä-90 ō I-lekhā gās. man ma di-mō-k father-by out come and his This-for made. mind not going-cf ' jêvan (i.e. ji-s) bā-chbã lai-s, ap-nō u-s Gār manai-nē. u 'me-by said father-to 00076 him-by him entreated. And

gai-ś, i-lã gār baras-batī gõ śya ji-s gul-pair gō did. years-from thy service and so-many me-by any-time thy tālis. Gussu lē-san gul-pair ma tā nyāpan malā-ku rach transgressed. Thee-by any-time word notsmallonegoat-of kidlēk dā-nus raksō-k ma jē dagar hēsas usi. Ηã i I merry even notgavest friends-of withmight-be. And this gō sērī bachhō-chan dīn i $m\bar{a}l$ urais, jai . hvē rā-j, 80N harlots with (?) thy property squandered, when he came, hā ga-s u-lēkhā mban khusī ga-gā-ti.' Gār Ō bā-s then thee-by him-for great feast madest. And his father-by u-jbang lē-s, jē-raksh 'sērī, rhai-san, ga gār jē-g jē him-to said. me-with ' son, thou livedest, and mine what sin lhē. Ι gō bājibī lhē than jē khusis gār jhyain isthine is. This proper **i**8 that (?) merry we and well kalhain: i ka-lai. gō pi-kban lhai jai pōk śichas, phir should-be; why, this thy brother iswho dead was, again tānch; gār kahōsas. thyāk-tāng-īs.' is-alive ; and was-lost, was-found-again.'

[No. 45.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

RANGKAS OR SAUKIYA KHAN.

SPECIMEN II.

(DISTRICT ALMORA.)

TA KATHA SINI. ONE TALE IS.

Jaidasu khich mi-g lēkh king khvāda hvē ding.

Whom-by other man-of sake-for pit digs he is-caught (?).

sang-khû tā mhan sud mī, jai-dō-g tā nyāpın chyam gār Certain village-in very simple man, whose one small house lāsung-māl rhain-sich. Õг rakshā-sich ō-dagar ris gan-syach some female-male-goats lived. His neighbours-by him-with envy making og sudak-sich-man-sya ughāt tak-në hvë sang-khu-patti lis milinat opportunity seeking him village-in-from to-expel attempt his simplicity-by gān-sich.

made.

Hvē tā jab ö-g läsung-malä j⊽ā jbyārā-r dong-n-sich, Then one day when his female-male-goats jungle-in grazing-were, them-by tā bēr kik-tas gār imta ga-në dug 83i-s. Hvě garības them one precipice-in throw and doing 80 all killed. That poor mi-sich rai-malā bē khōs hvē gar be-chan gomta ganē simple man-by those cows-goats skin took-off and skins somehow doing nam kabēch, gār rangatī-rā kurš. Am-ar u hvē-nā gudā phu-ri Way-on him night selling-for took. befell. and there 80 Me cave-in ka-rhaich. Pyal-muñch hyangsu gar khu-mi khu-rach māl hvānam-pattī stolen property far-from Midnight after stopped. some thief khu-nē chyāng-tas gār hvēdas phuār đē gās. Hvē phu bhitar usī-gō arrived and them-by cave-at abode made. That cave inside their usī-g kharbarāt pan-nē hvē mi mban kahyūch gār u-s hvē their hearing that man much *feared* and him-by those noise akinakhũ-svũ iai rhā-s aphī chyās-m maiki gās. u-s under which him-by brought himself to-hide attempt (?) made. Cave inside khu-mī ka-rhō-chas khũ-mi-syach kharbarat yan-s gár dhuk mul skin hearing thieves were-alarmed and noise thieres-by alsilner michan hvēran sindēch kasēch. Dublō mī-s hvē iai mul which Simple man-by that there leaving men ran. silver apan rasyā tās gār apnō sũar tāpach. Ι $\mathbf{m}\mathbf{u}\mathbf{l}$ iai u-s own village-to went. with took and This silver which him-bu pā-mi-k tang-s u-s u-s parōs khamir-chuba ta sigā tho-chas. got him-by to-measure him-by neighbour some-to a measure asked. mi-chas idō-gō bhēd parös gā-mō bāst ki hvēdas kha That neighbouring man-by this-of discernment making for that him-by what khung-su lĩs vaktas. siga Hvē dubal mai-ś brought, measure bottom-at tar applied. Thatsimple man-by silver dō-śich si⊈ā iai hvē dā-ś gār u khung-su having-measured measure which borrowed that gave and its bottom-at tar-by parösī-gō mī-chan lōbh chyang-rāch, mul kadōch. Idaś ō-g some silver stuck. This-by his neighbourhood-of men avarice hvēdas garīb mī u-chabā rhū-sas, 'ga-su i-l $\widetilde{\mathbf{a}}$ gār $\mathbf{m}\mathbf{u}\mathbf{l}$ gumtā-ganē them-by poor man that-to asked, 'thee-by so-much some silver how-doing gu-dai tāngansu?' U-s lē-s, 'apnō-g lāsung-mal Ъĕ whence gotiest?' Him-by said, 'self-of female-goats-male-goats skins having sold.' ō-dās gār $\mathbf{m}\mathbf{u}\mathbf{l}$ lõbh-sē ō-g paros-as This poor man his-envy-by and silver avarice-by his neighbour-by own duk sais gār ō-g bē-k rang-k kurś. Gar lē. all cows-goats killed and their skins-of to-sell took. And what happened, saudas sirpha mani mul tang-s. kī is that him-by this-by bargain-by only little silver got.

ramkō-s riś rā-ch u-s garib mī-g chim This matter-by anger coming him-by poor man-of house(-to) fire gār idō-gō phā-kũ gā-tas. Garib mi rai phā thum-sya gār tā and this-of ashes Poor man all (?) ashes collected and one made. thaili-r tāsu, gār u-gō rang kurs thaipach. $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{m}$ -rī u-s apno thaili put, and it to-sell taking went. Way-on him-by own bag phēr sū gãr tā sī-tas tidhārũ-chubã jai ninam sīch tī way-of corner-at left and a spring-towhich near was water tung dēch. I-jyā-rō tā khich mī hī bōjh hō-tī-tāś to-drink went. This-time-at one other man flourloadleaving water tung dēch. Thuk-sē u-s lhēsas apan bhārī sī-nē to-drink went. Returning him-by mistaking own load leaving ashes-of böjh kurs gấr apnō-gŏ syang dēch. Hvē garīb mī lēk thok-sas took and load own home went. That poor man also returned and hvēr tā-san bojh jai khich mi-s sī-nē dē-ch pĭk kurs. u-s there load which other man-by leaving went him-by taking carried. put Hvě bhārī-r kharī khasin i-bhītar van-nē u-s til-s. u lead-on some strange-signs That seen him-by this-inside itopening, hī pyū-san tang-s. Hã u-s u bojh apno suar kurs, jai-bã flour filled found. Then him-by that load his home-to took, so-that

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hi-g hvē li-g andāj **u-**8 gas, hā apnō-gō parosi weight-of flour-of thatmeasuring him-bu made, then his neighbour sigā thochusū. Ō-g parosī hi mi-s pā-nē garīb apnū-gū asked. His neighbour measure flour knowing poor man-by OLC /2 phā-g badlā hi tangsu chim-g u-s lēk apnō-gō chyam mễ po-su, house-of ashes-of instead flour got self-of him-by also house fire u-gō phā-gō rang ma tāchu (i.e. tar-chū?), gār khisaichu apnō its ashes-of selling not andhecould, and despairing sór rā-chu gār jaihantā gā-su pachhtachu. u-s hvēntā barē whaterer home-to cameand him-by didthat much repenied.

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

He who digs a pit for another, he himself falls into it.

In a certain village there lived a simple man who possessed a small house and some cattle. His neighbours envied him and tried to take advantage of his simplicity and expel him from the village.

One day when his herd of goats was grazing in the jungle, they threw them over a precipice and thus killed them all. The poor simple man took the skins of the cattle and carried them off to sell somehow or other. Night befell him on the way and he took shelter in a cave. After midnight some thieves brought some stolen property from a distance and took up their quarters before the cave. Hearing the noise made by them, as he lay within the cave, the man was much alarmed and tried to hide under the skins he had brought. Hearing the noise of the skins in the cave, the thieves were alarmed, and ran off leaving all the silver they had brought. The simple man took possession of the silver and went home. He asked one of his neighbours for a measure in order to measure the silver he had brought. The neighbour, who wanted to know what he had brought, put some tar on the bottom of the measure. After having measured the silver, the simple man returned the measure, and some silver was sticking in the tar. His neighbour became greedy and asked how he had got so much money. He said, 'by selling the skins of my flock.' Filled with envy and from avarice his neighbour then killed all his own cattle and took the skins off to sell them, but he only got very little in return for them.

He therefore got angry and set fire to the poor man's house. The poor man collected the ashes in a bag and went off to sell it. On the way he left his bag at a corner and went to drink water at a well in the neighbourhood. In the meantime another man left a load of flour and went to drink water. On returning he by mistake, left his own load there and went off with the ashes. When the poor man returned he took the load which the other man had left. He saw some strange marks on it, opened it, and found it to be full of flour. He went home, and again asked for the measure in order to know how much flour he had got. When his neighbour understood that he had received flour in return for the ashes of his house, he set fire to his own house. He could not, however, sell the ashes, and went home in despair and repented much of what he had done.

DARMIYA.

The Patti of Darma forms part of the Pargana of Darma in Almora. It is bounded on the north by Tibet; on the west by the chain containing the Panchachuli group and the Chhipula peak; on the south by a line drawn from the latter peak due east to the Kali River, and on the east by the chain culminating in Yirgnajung separating it from the Byangs Valley and Patti Chaudangs. Darma is sub-divided into the Malla and Talla, i.e. upper and lower pattis.

The inhabitants are Bhōṭiās, and their number was estimated for this Survey at 1,761.

A version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son and a translation of well-known popular tale have been forwarded from the district, together with a list of Standard Words and Phrases. The materials are not satisfactory, but they form the only basis of the remarks on Dārmiyā which follow.

Dārmiyā is closely related to the dialects spoken in the neighbouring districts of Byangs and Chaudangs. It has been much influenced by Aryan forms of speech in vocabulary and grammar, not however to the same extent as Chaudāngsī.

Pronunciation.—The phonetic system is richly developed. The vowels a, i, and u are both short and long. E and o are always marked as long. The marking of the other long vowels is not, however, consistent.

Final vowels are often interchanged or dropped. Thus the genitive suffix occurs in the forms $g\bar{u}$, $g\bar{o}$, gai, and g; the suffix of the case of the agent is $s\bar{u}$, sai, and s; the verbal noun ends in $m\bar{o}$, $m\bar{u}$ and m, and so forth.

Vowels are also often dropped in unaccented syllables. Compare luk-chō and ka-lk-cho, became; ka-p- $t\bar{a}ng$ - $s\bar{u}$, was found again $(p\bar{\imath})$; ka-p- $d\bar{a}$ - $s\bar{u}$, gave back, returned; $r\bar{a}$ -ln-ch \bar{u} and $r\bar{a}$ -lan-ch \bar{u} , coming, and so forth.

It has already been mentioned that \bar{o} and \bar{u} often interchange; thus, $tad\bar{o}$ and $tad\bar{u}$, that; the locative suffix $r\bar{o}$ or $r\bar{u}$, and so forth. Ai is interchangeable with \bar{u} and \bar{o} in the suffixes of the genitive and in the case of the agent. Ai also interchanges with \bar{e} in the base sai, $s\bar{e}$, strike.

I am not sure how the sound which has been transliterated ng is pronounced. It seems probable that ng sometimes denotes the nasal pronunciation of the preceding vowel and sometimes the guttural nasal.

With regard to consonants there are gutturals, palatals, cerebrals, dentals and labials, of aspirated soft consonants only dh, dh and bh occur.

There are two s-sounds, a dental s and a palatal sh, a dental r and a cerebral r, but apparently no z or zh.

Hard and soft consonants are often interchanged; thus, $ka-k\bar{a}-s\bar{u}$ and $g\bar{a}-s\bar{u}$, made; $khai-ch\bar{u}$ and $khai-j\bar{u}$, other; $il\bar{u}$ and $id\bar{u}$, that; $ph\bar{a}$ and $b\bar{a}$, father. It seems probable that we have here really aspirated soft consonants which are often also pronounced in such a way as to be hardly distinguishable from the corresponding hard sounds.

Aspirated and unaspirated letters are sometimes interchanged; thus, apī and aphī, own; luk-chū and lhik-chū, became.

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Dropping of consonants seems to occur in forms such as $jy\bar{x}$, instead of $ji-y^{-}$, my; $jangal-\bar{u}$, instead of $jangal-r\bar{u}$, in the jungle, and so forth.

Final consonants of Classical Tibetan are often dropped. Thus M, Tiletan log, hand; $ph\bar{u}$, Tibetan phug, cave; $gy\bar{u}$, Tibetan rgyug-pa, run, and so forth. In other cases a vowel is added; thus, $t\bar{a}k$ - \bar{u} , Tibetan gehig, one; mis- \bar{u} . Tibetan gehig, six, and so forth.

The initial compound consonants of Classical Tibetan are commonly simplified; thus, rgyu-ba becomes $gy\bar{u}$, run; kkyi becomes $kk\bar{i}$, dog; gtong-ba becomes $d\bar{c}$, gives; bzhi becomes $p\bar{i}$, four, and so forth.

We have no information about the use of tones in the dislect.

Articles.—There are no articles. Indefinite pronouns and the numeral $t\bar{a}k\bar{a}$, $t\bar{a}$, one, are used as an indefinite article, and demonstrative pronouns are sometimes used as a kind of definite article. Thus, $kham\bar{i}$ $b\bar{a}$, $aab\bar{u}$ $b\bar{a}$, a certain father, a tather; $t\bar{a}k\bar{a}$ $cha-m\bar{e}$, a daughter; $t\bar{a}$ $jy\bar{a}$, a day; $id\bar{u}$ $ph\bar{u}$ - $g\bar{u}$ $d\bar{a}r$ - $my\bar{a}$, at the door of the cave: \bar{u} $id\bar{u}$ $d\bar{a}ng$ - $g\bar{u}$ $pis\bar{a}$ - $r\bar{u}$ $t\bar{a}ng$ $r\bar{o}$ -tan- $t\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{a}$, he the hill-of top-on cattle grazing-is.

Nouns.—Gender.—The natural gender is distinguished by using different words, or by adding affixes denoting the gender. Thus, $b\bar{a}$, father; $min\bar{a}$, mother: lang, bull; $bain\bar{a}$, cow: $ma-l\bar{a}$, he-geat; $l\bar{a}$ -sāng, she-geat: $r\bar{a}ng$, herse; $m\bar{c}$ -rāng, mare: $ph\bar{c}$ - $ph\bar{n}$, male deer; $m\bar{c}$ - $ph\bar{u}$, female deer, and so forth.

Number.—The plural is not marked when it appears from the context. The usual plural suffix is chan; thus, $r\bar{a}ng$ -chan, horses; cha- $m\bar{e}$ -chan, daughters. The list of words also contains forms such as $b\bar{a}$ titti and dulo $b\bar{a}$, fathers, lit. many fathers.

Case.—If we can trust the materials, the various cases are freely interchanged. Compare idüsü võ-sü chim-rī-sü löbh pi-rā-sü, then his neighbour-to avarice came, where the suffix sū, which properly belongs to the case of the agent, is used to form a genitive and a dative.

The base without the addition of any suffix is commonly used to denote the subject of intransitive verbs, and the direct object; thus, $g\bar{u}$ - $g\bar{u}$ $n\bar{u}$ - $n\bar{u}$ pi- $r\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{i}$ - $n\bar{i}$, thy brother has returned; $ap\bar{i}$ dan $kv\bar{e}$ -n, his belly filling. The dative, and occasionally also the case of the agent, are sometimes used to denote the direct object; thus, ji- $s\bar{u}$ u-g $sir\bar{i}$ - $j\bar{o}$ $kam\bar{i}$ - $s\bar{u}$, me-by his son-to struck, I have beaten his son; $iu\bar{u}$ bai- $s\bar{u}$ $r\bar{a}ng$ - $m\bar{o}$, those skins-by to-sell, in order to sell those skins. In $us\bar{i}$ - $kh\bar{u}$ $kiktas\bar{i}$, them threw, they threw them down, the suffix $kh\bar{u}$ is added in order to denote the direct object.

The subject of transitive verbs is usually put in the case of the agent by adding the suffix $s\bar{u}$, s, which also denotes the instrument. Thus, $sir\bar{s}-s\bar{u}$ the son said; $jy\bar{a}ng$ -s, with ropes.

The suffix of the dative is apparently $j\bar{o}$, $j\bar{u}$, also written $ch\bar{u}$, $ch\bar{u}$; thus, $d\bar{a}ng$ - $m\bar{i}$ - $ch\bar{u}$, to the servants; $b\bar{a}$ - $ch\bar{o}$, to the father; sahar- $j\bar{u}$, to a city. This suffix is used in the same wide sense as Classical Tibetan la; thus, ga- $s\bar{u}$ $tad\bar{o}$ kha- $m\bar{i}$ - $j\bar{o}$ $t\bar{u}n\bar{i}$ - $s\bar{u}$. thee-by that whom-with boughtest, from whom did you buy that? The case of the agent is occasionally used as a dative; thus, chim- $r\bar{i}$ - $s\bar{u}$, to the neighbour.

The suffix of the ablative is chū, usually preceded by khar, on; thus, vō-jō-chū, from with him; bā-khar-chū, from a father. Another suffix of the ablative is chyāng;

thus, bir chyāng jain, all from good, best. Instead of $ch\bar{u}$ we occasionally also find $s\bar{u}$, i.e. apparently the suffix of the case of the agent; thus, $v\bar{a}nam-s\bar{u}$, from a distance.

The suffix of the genitive is $g\bar{o}$, $g\bar{u}$, gai, g, also written $k\bar{o}$, $k\bar{u}$, etc. Thus, $b\bar{a}$ -chango, of fathers; cha-m \bar{e} - $g\bar{u}$, of a daughter; $m\bar{a}$ - $l\bar{a}$ -la-chu-gai bai, the skins of the sheep and goats; $sir\bar{i}$ - $k\bar{u}$, of a son, and so forth. The case of the agent, the dative and the ablative are occasionally used instead; thus, $id\bar{u}$ $s\bar{u}dh\bar{o}$ $m\bar{i}$ - $s\bar{u}$ $d\bar{a}h$ - $s\bar{u}$, out of envy of that simple man; $apk\bar{i}$ $chh\bar{a}n\bar{a}$ - $j\bar{u}$ $ph\bar{a}$ - $g\bar{u}$ philan, instead of the ashes of his hut; $khv\bar{i}$ -thai- $ch\bar{u}$ $m\bar{a}l$, theft-from property, stolen property. Sometimes also the genitive is indicated by simply putting the governed before the governing noun, without adding any suffix; thus, $ph\bar{u}$ $bhitar\bar{u}$ bai kharbar, cave within skins noise, the rustling of the skins in the cave.

The suffix of the terminative, which is commonly used as a locative, is $r\bar{o}$ or $r\bar{u}$; thus, $d\bar{e}sh$ - $r\bar{u}$, to a country; rau- $r\bar{u}$, in the jungle. Other suffixes of the locative are ninhi, and $my\bar{a}$; thus, $m\bar{a}l$ - $t\bar{a}l$ -ninhi, in the property; $d\bar{a}r$ - $my\bar{a}$, at the gate.

Other relations are indicated by means of postpositions. Such are $n\bar{\imath}m\bar{a}$, near; $t\bar{\imath}$, $t\bar{e}$, with; $raksy\bar{a}$, together with; $kh\bar{u}$, in; $l\bar{e}$, into; $char\bar{\imath}$, from, added to the base; $d\bar{a}ngs\bar{u}$, for the sake of; $ramar\bar{u}$, under; $pisar\bar{u}$, on the top of; $t\bar{u}t\bar{u}$, $lkan-t\bar{\imath}$, before; $y\bar{u}ngk\bar{o}n-t\bar{\imath}$, behind; philan, instead of; $b\bar{e}r\bar{u}$, under, usually added to the genitive; and so forth.

Adjectives.—Adjectives precede the noun they qualify; thus, kha-mī jain mī, a good man. The particle of comparison is chyāng or chyāng-rī, compare Ladakhī sang; thus, bir chyāng jainū, all from good, best; usī pē vō rangsyā chyāng-rī yambā bū nisīnī, his brother his sister than more tall is.

Numerals.—The numerals are given in the list of words. They precede the word they qualify. There is no indication in the materials of the use of generic particles.

Pronouns.—The following are the regular personal pronouns:—	Pronouns.—The	following are	the regular	personal	pronouns:-
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	I	We	Thou	You	He, she,	They
Agent	jī	in	gai	gai-nī	ū, vō	usī
	jī-sū, jī-s	in-sai, in-s	ga-sū, ga-s	ganī-s(ū)	u-sū	usī-sū
	jī-gū, ji-g	in-gō	gō-gū	ganī-gū	u∙gō	usī-gū

Other forms are $jy\bar{u}$, my; $ning-r\bar{u}$, we (sic); $g\bar{o}-gun\bar{a}$, thine; $j\bar{\imath}$, he (sic); $ing-g\bar{u}$, his (sic), and so forth. The list of words also contains forms such as $ji-sn\bar{a}$, by me; $gan\bar{\imath}-sut\bar{a}$, by you; $u-khan\bar{a}$, in it, and so forth.

Demonstrative pronouns are nai, nadō, nadū, andō, this; id, idō, idū, itū, that; tad, tadō, tadū, that; and so forth.

Interrogative pronouns are $kha-m\bar{i}$, what man? who? kha, what? $ul\bar{a}ng$, how much, how many?

Interrogative pronouns are sometimes also used as relatives; thus, ulāng māl jī chhyū-m nhinī, jī dā, how much property I to-get am, me give, give me the share of the property which I shall get. Gabū is probably originally an interrogative pronoun. It is often used as a relative; thus, gabū-sū mī dāng-sū kung khvai-tā,

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āphī ukhnā dī-nī, he who digs a pit for another, he himself falls into it; tākō mī gabū-gō tākō chhānā nī-chū, a man whose a hut was, a man who possessed a hut; idū bai-gū bērū gabū-chū u-sai rai-chū, under those skins which he had brought.

Such clauses are formed according to Aryan grammatical principles. The Aryan relative $j\bar{o}$ is also often met with; thus, $j\bar{\imath}$ $j\bar{o}$ $n\bar{\imath}n\bar{\imath}$, bir $g\bar{o}$ -gun $\bar{\imath}$ $lh\bar{\imath}$, mine what is, all thine is.

In other cases demonstrative pronouns are used as relatives; thus, nadū mālā idōsū tāng-sū idū pā-mū, this property him-by brought that to-measure, in order to measure the property he had brought; idū bhārī idūsū khaijū mī-sū sī-lan dī-chū, that lead there other man leaving went, the load which the other man had left.

Other instances of relative clauses are $g\bar{u}-g\bar{u}$ noi $sir\bar{\iota}$, $h\bar{\upsilon}d\bar{u}$ $g\bar{u}$ $m\bar{u}lt\bar{u}l\bar{u}$ $kaph\bar{u}kai-s\bar{u}$, thy this son, he (i.e. who) thy property wasted; $us\bar{\iota}-g\bar{u}$ chimr $\bar{\iota}$ $g\bar{u}$ $us\bar{u}$ $d\bar{u}h$ $g\bar{u}-n\bar{\upsilon}$ $n\bar{\iota}-ch\bar{u}$, his neighbours who his envy making were.

It will be seen that there is no fixed way in which relative clauses are expressed. Aryan principles are gradually being introduced. They have not, however, as yet vindicated themselves as really belonging to the language.

In addition to the relative pronouns we may also mention conjunctions such as $gab\bar{u}$ bakht, when; jab, when; ki, that, and so forth.

Indefinite pronouns are khamī, a certain; gabū, a certain; kha-mī-rī, anyone; khai-rī, anything; khai-chū and khai-jū, other, and so forth.

Verbs.—Dārmiyā conjugation is based on the same principles as those found in other connected forms of speech. The various tenses are not formed from different bases as in classical Tibetan, but by means of suffixes. There is a distinct tendency to distinguish the person of the subject in the form of the verb, at least so far as the second person singular is concerned. The suffix of that person is n; thus, sai-t-an, strikest.

Verb substantive.—The usual bases of the verb substantive are $lh\bar{e}$, $n\bar{i}$, $s\bar{i}$, and t. In the present tense we find $lh\bar{e}$ for all persons and numbers, and also forms such as $n\bar{i}$ - $n\bar{i}$, is; (ching) $n\bar{i}$ and (ching) $s\bar{i}$, is (proper); $nhin\bar{i}$, am; $n\bar{i}$ - $s\bar{i}$ - $n\bar{i}$, is, are; kha mang- $s\bar{e}$ -n, what are you called lak-lak- $ch\bar{u}$, am, is; ma lhik- $ch\bar{u}$, am not; $r\bar{o}$ -lan $t\bar{a}t\bar{a}$, grazing is, and so forth.

The corresponding past tense is $n\bar{\imath}$ - $s\bar{\imath}s$, was; $s\bar{\imath}$ - $s\bar{\imath}n$ - $s\bar{\imath}s$, wast, we were, you were; $n\bar{\imath}$ -san- $s\bar{\imath}u$, he was; $n\bar{\imath}$ - $ch\bar{\imath}u$, he was, they were.

Finite verbs.—The verb substantive is freely used in the formation of the various tenses of finite verbs.

Present time.—The present tense is formed by adding $s\bar{s}$, $n\bar{s}$, or other forms of the verb substantive to the base. In the first person singular we find forms such as sui- $t\bar{s}$, strike; $d\bar{s}$ - $s\bar{s}$, go. In the second person singular we find $sy\bar{s}ng$ -si-n, thou livest; in the third person singular $r\bar{u}$ - $n\bar{s}$, comes; khvai- $t\bar{a}$, digs; and in the third person plural $g\bar{a}yt\bar{a}$, they make. The list of Standard Words and Phrases further contains forms such as sai-tan, thou strikest, we strike; sai- $t\bar{a}$, you strike, they strike; $d\bar{s}$ -si-na- $l\bar{a}$, thou goest; $d\bar{s}van$, we go; $d\bar{s}si$ - $n\bar{s}$ - $l\bar{a}$, you go; $d\bar{s}$ - $t\bar{s}$, they go.

Compound forms are syongksi-nī, he lives; rolan tātā, he is grazing, and so on.

Past time.—The usual suffix of the past tense occurs in various forms such as $s\bar{o}$, $s\bar{u}$. s, $ch\bar{o}$, $ck\bar{u}$; thus, $lk\bar{e}$ - $s\bar{u}$, he said; $g\bar{a}$ -s, he made; $t\bar{a}$ - $ch\bar{o}$, he went; $r\bar{a}$ - $ch\bar{u}$, he came.

In the first person an element $y\bar{e}$, $y\alpha$, y, or $\bar{\imath}$ is apparently inserted before the tense suffix; thus, $gamcha \cdot y\bar{e} \cdot s\bar{u}$, I have walked; $s\bar{e} \cdot y\tilde{a} \cdot s$, I struck, we struck; $di \cdot y\tilde{a} \cdot s$, we went; $g\bar{a} \cdot y - s\bar{u}$, I did; $kam \cdot \bar{\imath} - s\tilde{u}$, I have beaten; $sai \cdot lan$ $t\bar{a} \cdot ya \cdot s\bar{u}$, striking I went, I was striking; $g\bar{a} \cdot ln \cdot \bar{a}$ $t\bar{a} \cdot y - s\bar{u}$, I was doing, and so forth. The same element is sometimes also suffixed in the third person; thus, ma $d\bar{e} \cdot ya \cdot s\bar{u}$, did not go.

In the second person an n, often followed by a vowel, is inserted; thus, $s\bar{e} \cdot n \cdot s$, struckest; $t\bar{u} \cdot n\bar{\imath} \cdot s\bar{u}$ and $t\bar{o} \cdot na \cdot s\bar{u}$, boughtest; $t\bar{a}ng \cdot n\bar{u} \cdot s\bar{u}$, foundest. In the plural we find $d\bar{e} \cdot n\bar{\imath} \cdot s\bar{o}$, you went; $s\bar{e} \cdot s$, you struck.

The suffix of past time is sometimes added to the participle ending in lan; thus, kharī rupayā ḍab-lan-chū, some rupees were sticking. Such forms are properly conjunctive participles.

Instead of $ch\bar{u}$ we once find $j\bar{u}$; thus, $d\bar{\imath}\cdot j\bar{u}$, he went.

The suffix of the past is sometimes preceded by other suffixes such as $s\bar{\imath}$, ta, $t\bar{\imath}$, $t\bar{\imath}$, but I am not in a position to state how those additions modify the meaning. Thus, $sy\bar{o}ng-s\bar{\imath}-ch\bar{\imath}$, he lived; $chhb\bar{\imath}-ti-s\bar{\imath}$, he divided; $park\bar{\imath}-t\bar{\imath}-s\bar{\imath}$, he wasted; $sai-ta-s\bar{\imath}$, they killed; $pug-ta-s\bar{\imath}$, he set. Forms such as $s\bar{\imath}-d\bar{\imath}-s\bar{\imath}$, left; $g\bar{\alpha}-d\bar{\imath}-s\bar{\imath}$, did, are probably compounds and literally mean 'leave-went,' 'do-went' respectively.

Two prefixes occur in the formation of the past, viz, ka and pa; thus, ka-lk- $ch\bar{u}$, became; ka-jyar- $ch\bar{u}$, feared; ka- $ph\bar{u}kai$ - $s\bar{u}$, wasted; pa- $th\bar{o}k$ - $s\bar{\iota}$ - $ch\bar{u}$, returned, etc. Pa probably also occurs in $park\bar{e}s\bar{u}$, wasted. It seems to take the form pi in pi- $kv\bar{o}r$ - $s\bar{u}$, he carried off; pi- $lhv\bar{e}$ -thai- $ch\bar{u}$, he was lost. The prefix pi, p, often seems to mean 'back,' 'again;' thus, pi- $r\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{\imath}$ - $n\bar{\imath}$, he has come back; ka-p- $t\bar{a}ng$ - $s\bar{u}$, is found back; ka-p- $d\bar{a}$ -su, he gave back.

Other forms such as $sa\bar{\imath}-t\bar{u}$, I had beaten; $d\bar{\imath}-s\bar{\imath}$, I went; $pakl-t\bar{a}$, applied; $g\bar{a}y-t\bar{a}$, made; $yan-hi-t\bar{a}$, heard; $r\bar{u}-hi-t\bar{a}$, asked, probably belong to the present.

Compound forms are $g\bar{a}y$ - $lh\bar{e}$, have done; $t\bar{u}ng$ - $n\bar{v}$ - $s\bar{u}$, he found; ching- $n\bar{v}$ - $ch\bar{u}$, he wished; $j\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{u}$ $n\bar{v}$ - $ch\bar{u}$, they were eating, and so forth.

Future.—The present is sometimes used as a future; thus, $d\bar{z}-s\bar{z}$, I will go; sai- $t\bar{z}$, I may beat. Usually, however, a suffix $y\bar{a}ng$ or $y\bar{a}$ is added, and various forms of the verb substantive are suffixed; thus, $lh\bar{e}-y\bar{a}ng-s\bar{z}$, I shall be; $ly\bar{a}ng-t\bar{z}$, I will say; $s\bar{e}-y\bar{a}-t\bar{a}$, he will strike, and so forth.

Imperative.—The simple base without any suffix is used as an imperative; thus, $d\bar{a}$, give; $d\bar{e}$, go. Suffixes such as $n\bar{\imath}$, $y\bar{a}$, $ty\bar{a}$, are often added; thus, $d\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{\imath}$, give; $t\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{\imath}$, put; cha- $y\bar{a}$, put; $g\bar{a}$ - $ty\bar{a}$, make. There are no instances in the materials available of a negative imperative.

Verbal nouns.—The base alone is used as an infinitive or verbal noun; thus, rang, to sell; tung, to drink. The common suffix of the verbal noun is mo, mu, or m; thus, jā-mo, to eat; pā-mu dāngsu, in order to measure; gā-m dāng-su, in order to make. Other verbal nouns are formed by adding n, nan, lan, lin, etc.; thus kvē-n and kvē-lan, filling; rāng-nan-chū, from selling, by selling; ū-gū sūdhō-lhē-lin-chū, his simple-being-from, on account of his simplicity.

Participles.—The suffixes $n(n\bar{u})$ and lan are also used in order to form various participles. Compare classical Tibetan la and na. Thus, $ch\bar{\imath}ng$ - $n\bar{\imath}s$ - $ch\bar{\imath}a$, he was wishing; $j\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{u}$ $n\bar{\imath}$ - $ch\bar{\imath}a$, they were eating; $g\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{o}$ $n\bar{\imath}$ - $ch\bar{\imath}a$, they were making; sy $\bar{o}ng$ -s-in $n\bar{\imath}$ - $ch\bar{\imath}a$, he was sitting, he lived; $d\bar{\imath}$ -lan, going; $kh\bar{o}$ -lan, taking out. Instead of lan we occasionally find lang; thus, $th\bar{o}$ -lang, asking; rai- $l\bar{a}ng$, bringing.

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Another participle, which apparently has the meaning of a conjunctive participle, is formed by adding that: thus, ri-that, rising. Such forms are probably all verbal nouns, and they are very commonly put in the ablative, with the meaning of a conjunctive participle. Thus, lnp- $ch\bar{u}$, becoming after having passed; $r\bar{a}$ -lan-ch\bar{u}, having come; $g\bar{a}$ -lin- $ch\bar{o}$, by making; $th\bar{o}k$ -that- $ch\bar{u}$, on returning.

Other forms of the conjunctive participle are pak-rī, having left; yan-sī-chū, having heard; chhbī-pē-l, dividing; and rīsū gū-la-b, anger making, on getting angry. The two latter forms are rather doubtful.

Passive voice.—There is no passive voice. Passivity is sufficiently indicated by the absence of the suffix of the agent after the subject.

Negative particle.—The negative particle is a prefixed mz. Thus, ma da-sa, did not give; ma $d\bar{a}$ -n-sa, didst not give; ma $y\bar{a}$ - $y\bar{a}$ -sa. I did not do (translated 'I did not transgress' in the specimen). There are no instances of the use of an interrogative particle in the materials available.

Order of words.—The usual order of words is subject, object, verb. The qualifying word precedes the qualified one. By the introduction of relative clauses from Aryan forms of speech the order of words has, however, to some extent been disturbed.

For further details the student is referred to the specimens which follow.

[No. 46.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY, TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

DARMIYĀ.

SPECIMEN I.

(PATTI DARMA, ALMORA.)

URAITĂ SIRÎ-KÜ RÎ. PRODIGAL SON-OF STORY.

Gängrū-häng usī-sū sirī nī-chū. min Gabū mi-kü nisī And them-of small were. Some man-of two 80n8 'ai bā, māl-tāl ninhī lhē-sū, ulāng bā-chō ing-g siri-sú 0 ' father, inhow-much said. property his father-to son-by dā.' Id-ō-sū nhinī chhbī-pēl jī บ-ยบ jī chhyū-m māl give.' And to-get amdividina me him-by I property chhbī-ti-sū. dal māl Gångrū jyā ing-gü ma nsî-gundā divided. And days his manu property not them-between māl-matā raksyā gā-lin-chū sirī-sū ٧ō bir vānam lup-chu mīn alltogether doing far being *small* son-by his property māl-matā vān-tai-dī-lin-chū āphī-kū dēś-rū tā-chō. găngrū tarē his and there riotously property went. country-to parkī-tē-sū. Gängrū-häng บรนิ kharch gā-lin-chō parkē-sū, bi expenditure all wasted. And him-by making spent. dal lukchō. idō-sū akāl ũ itū jagā-rō tang kalk-chū. that place-in big famine came. and he needybegan-to-be Hãng ū itū dēś-rū tākō jain mī-tē raksā dī-lan · And he. that country-in one goodman-with together going apī syöng-sī-chū, insū ũ u-sū rē-rū phung-sū. sīphā rō lived, and him his field-in him-bu swine to-graze sent. it Gängrü ũ kō-chī gangrū gērā-mērā sīphā iā-nu ΪŌ And he those barks and berries which swine eating khushī-sū nī-chū apī dan kvē-n ching-n nī-chū: gāngrū 11-817 gladly his belly to-fill were wishing was: andhim-to khai-rī kha-mī-si-rī ma dā-sū. Gängrü idasū apī-chī rā-ln-chū anyone-by anything not And his-senses gave. then comina lhē-sū. įvū bā-kō น-รนั dāng-mī dan νō kvē-lan yambā father's him-by said. 'my servants their belly filling more tāng-nū nī-chū. gang-rû phī-lan hīchī-sī. Jī rī-thai jyū I getling were. and hungering die. I rising my

bā nīmā dî≪ī gāngrū **u**-30 lyang-ti, "ci bā, jī-sū father near 50 and him-to will-say, " 0 father, me-tu paimēsar-kū marji-ku ultą gā-ya-sū, gāngrū gō-lkan-ti pāp gā-ya-sū. God-of will-of against ard. and of-thes-lefore sin Gangrū jī phirī gō sirī lhē-mō mű ma luk-chū. Ji-su jī-zū (sic) again thy son And Ito-say worthy not 310 am. thu tā-kō dang-mi tai-kai-rā-nu gātvā."' Gängri VÕ hā nimā rī-thai one servant like-coming make. " And his father neur rising dī-chū. Gamkī vō vānam nī-chū, u-sū bā-sū vānam-sā tāng-sā, gängni Butwent. he far father-by fur-from was, his8.320, syō-kāng-chū, gāngrū ٧ō bā-sū u-sū gyū-lan. น-9นี phā-lan-rai-sū his father-by pitied, and him-by running, 1 173 embraced gângrū hū gā-lan kur-sū. Gāngrū sirī-sū n-jō lhē-sū. 6 81 bā. andkiss making took. And 80n-by him-to said. 0 father, paimēsar-kū marjī-gū jī-sū ultō gō-lkain-tī pāp gāy-lhī, gāngrū hāng God-of will-of me-bu against and thy-sight-in sin done-is. and lhē-mū lhik-chū.' jī gō sirī ma Gam-luk-chē-rī bā-sū api to-say I thy not worthy-became.' sonButfather-by his dang-mi-chu lhe-su, 'bir chyang thai-lan rai-lyā, gāngrū jainū gē idū good robe taking-out bring, 'all from servants-to said.and that rai-lin-chū chū-nī, gāngrū vō lā-rū lag-clihep gängrū līk-rū paulā put-on, andhis hand-on ring and feet-on shoes jā-mō tung-mo hang ing-gū Gāngrū ārand chū-nī. gātyā. Gamī-kī eating drinking and merriment make. And our Because put.gangrū phiri chok-ţangchū; ū jī-gū sirī pung-chū, pī-hvē-thai-chū. phiri again alice-became; died. and he lost-was. again ka-p-tāng-sū.' Idosū phirī ū jain gā-sū. again they merry made. back-found-was.' And

nī-chū. Gāngrū idosū vo rā-chū, pün sirī vā-sū ū rē-rū So-much time-at his big son field-in And was. then he coming, u-sū thing-lan chhā-lan gāngrū ninam von-chū, idosū söng-rü gāng-rū arriving, then him-by singing village-to near playing and and ũ-sũ tākō dang-mī hvī-lan-chū Gängrü rū-hi-tā. yan-hī-tā. thing-mu. And him-by one servant calling heard. arked. dancing dāngsū luk-chu?' Gāngrū u-sū lhē-sū, 'gū-gū nū-nū u-jō 'naduk kha is ? ' And him-by him-to said, ' thy this-of what meaning brother jātī dā-sū, kha-dāng-sū, ki bā-sū gangrū gū **u-s**ŭ nī-nī. pī-rā thy father-by feast gave, why, that and hims-bu **i**8, come tāng-sū.' Idosū u-sū rīs jain-lhō-chū-lhō-pyā gā-sū idösü jī u-jö found.' And him-by anger safe-and-sound made and I him bā bangru Id dangsu ŭ rā-chū dē-ya-sū. idosii ñ hhitarū ma for his father outside This come and inside not went. him VOL. III, PART I.

manē-lan-patē-lan gā-sū. Įdosū ū bā-sū javāb dā-lan lhē-sū ki, entreating made. And hefather-to answer giving saidthat. 'vovã. jī in-g alã khar-chū ga-jö lanbē gā-ln-ātāv-sū, idōsū jī-sū · lo. I years fromso-many thyservice doing-was, and me-bu kha-įvā-rī gō amān ma gāyasū; idősü ga-sū kha-jyā-rī jī-jō tā any-day thy order notdid (sic); andthee-by any-day me-to one mīn lachū-lē dā-n-sū ki jī ma halū-sāth raksyā ānand gā-tī. small kid-even not gavest thatI friends with merry might-make. Gamluk-chē-rī gū·gū nai sirī hōdū chamë raksyā gũ māl-tālū Butthythis voho80n girls with thyproperty ka-phūkai-sū, bakht gabū ū rā-sū. idū bakht ū-dāng-sū ga-sū squandered, what time he came, that timethee-by his-sake-for iātī ka-dā-n-sū." Idosū bā-sū u-jō lhē-sū. 'sirī. gai jī raksa feast madest. And father-by him-to said, 'son, thou me with barabar syöngsin, idösü jī jõ nini, bar gō-gunā lhē. Andū ching-ni always livedest. and minewhat i8, allthine is. This proper ni-chū ki ning-rū ānand gā-m par-nī idosū khushi gā-mō par-ni. thatwas we merry make should andhappy makeshould. Khadang-sū, nadū gō рē jō pung-sù, phirī chok-tang-cho; idosū Why, this thy brother who was-dead, again alive-became: and pi-lhvē-thai-chū, phiri ka-p-tang-su.' lost-was, again found-back-was.'

[No. 47.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

DARMIYA.

SPECIMEN IL

(PATTI DARMA, ALMORA.)

Tākō di-nī. ukhnā kung khvai-tā āphī dāng-sū Gabū-sū mī falls. 4 himself in-it for pitdigs Whom-bu man

rī. story.

tākō chhānā gabū-gō sūdhō mī. sang-khū tākō dalō Gabū ħut whose one simple man, Certain village-in one very chimri. Usi-gü nī-chū. svong-sin-nī-chū. ma-lā-la-chū khai-rī gangrū neighbour, His lived. were, sheep-goats some and gā-nō nī-chū, u-gū sudhō-lhē-lin-chū bakht vō-lan chū usū dāh gū opportunity coming simplicity-by his were, who him envy making Idoso tā jyā iab gāy-tā. lanch kharchū thai-mũ sang-khū u-gū when day made. And one endeacour expelling from village-in his hē-sū tā-kō idū usī-khū u-gō malā-la-chū rau-rū kur-sū. rau precipice-from them one they sheep-goats jungle-in grazing took, pa-chhyāng kiktasū; idumanā gā-lan-chū bir gai-tu-sū.

killed. all thus doing donn threw:

khō-lan rai-chū ma-lā-la-chu-gai bai idū garīb sūdhō mī-sū Usū brought skins taking sheep-goats-of poor simple man-by those Am-rū u-sū namsyā kur-sü. räng sahar-jū bai gabū idū gangrū Way-on him night took. city-to to-sell certain skins those and luk-chū. hāsā idū phū-rū janggalū gāngrū ū tākō chibri-chū, shelter-taking became. cave-in jungle-in that andħе one befell. rai-lang khvī-thai-chū māl khvī-mī kha-mī-gū dī-lan Pēl-man-chhū bringing theft-of property thief some Midnight going gā-sū. Idū dāngsū phū-gū dār-myā idū mī-sŭ idū rā-chū, gingrū lodgings mude. That door-on cave-of man-by that that and came, dalū ka-jyar-chū, yan-si-chù idū mĩ kharbarā u-gū bhitarū phū-gũ feured. much that 174 G 18 hearing noise insidehis cave-of gabū-chū u-sai rai-chū, apī-gū bē-rū, bai-gū idū idüsü gängrü brought, him-by his which under, skins-of him-by those and lai-lin-chū khushīnū kharbar Phū bhitarū bai chyā-sim-gū dhandā gā-sū, hearing thief inside skins #018C Cave made. effort hiding-of 3 s 2 VOL. III. PART I.

Nadū

to-drink

si-lan

leaving |

went.

dī-chū

That

tī

went water to-drink

time

tung

one

dī-chū.

went.

other

man

Thok-thai-chū

Returning

flour-of

u-sũ

him-by

load

there

lhai-thai-chū

mistaking

 \mathbf{m} āl \mathbf{u}

ka-jyar-chū găngrū jyar-lan-chū bir rupayā jō udū raksā rai-chū was-startled andstartledallrupees which him withbrought idū-khanā paksī tā-bu-chū. Sūdhō mī-sū tadū rupayā api pāsū-rū leavingthere fled. Simple man-by those rupees his possession-in kakā-sū, gāngrū apī song-rū tāyp-chū. didand his village-to went-back.

 $\mathbf{i} \mathrm{d} \mathbf{ ilde{u}}$

pā-mū

dāng-sū

u-sū

chimri-

idō-sū tāng-sū

This property him-by gotthat measuring for him-by neighbourskha-mī-lē-cha-rī tā khāng thō-lang kur-sū. Ū chimrī-sū from certain-from a wooden-measure askingtook.That neighbour-by idū bhūtī gā-m dāng-sū, idū-sū rai-sū, kha khāng-gū that-o'f knowledge brought,making for, him-by whatmeasure-of rūm-rñ līsū pakl-tā. Idū sūdhō mī·sū rupayā pā-lan khāng That simple man-by rupees measuring bottom-at tarapplied.measure ka-p-dā-sū, hāng idō-sū idū-gū rūm-rū līsū-sū kharī rupayā dab-lan-chū. returned, andthenitsbottom-at tar-by somerupees stuck. Idū-sū vō-sū chimrī-sū lõbh pi-rā-sū, U-sū sūdhō mī-sū his neighbour-to avarice came. Him-by simple man-from rū-lã alãng pā-sū ki, ʻga-sü rupayā gam gā-lan gāngrū khai that, thee-by so-many asking asked rupees whatdoing andwhat hisāb-sū tāng-nū-sū.' **U-**sū lhē-sū ki apī malā-lā-chū-gū bai rate-at gottest.' Him-by saidthat own sheep-goats-of skins rang-nan-chū. Idā südhö mī-sū dāh-sū gāngrū rupayā lōbh-sũ selling. That simple man-of envy-from andrupees avarice-from u-sŭ chimrī-sū ma-lā-la-chū aphū bir pung-sai-tu-sū, gāngrū idū his neighbour-by own all sheep-goats killed, and those rāng-mō kōr-sū, hāng-idō-sū gāchhlai, khai-dāng-sū, usũ idū skins to-sell took, butin-vain. why, him-bu that pan-sü siraph alī-pā rupayā tāng-sū. Idū-dāng-sū rīsū gā-lab (sic) bargain-from only few rupees got. Therefore anger making sūdhō mī-gū chhānā-khū mē pugtasū gāngrū idū-gū u-sū $ph\bar{a}$ gā-dī-sū. simple man-of hut-in fire him-by set . andthat-of ashesmade. Sùdhō mī-sū phā iamā gā-sū gāngrū tākö thailī-rū tā-sū, Simple man-by ashestogether madeand one bag-in put, gāngrū idū rang di-iŭ. Am-tham u-sū jī-gū thaili am-gū and itto-sell went. Way-on him-by his bagway-of tham-rü sī-dī-sū, gāngrū tākō dhārū-rū, jõ alipā vānam-rū, tī On left. and one spring-at, which little distance-at, water tung dī-chū. Idū bakht tākō khaichū mī laii-gū bhārī idu-khū

apī-gū bhārī sī-lan phā-gū bhārī kur-lau gängrü aphi am-rū di-sa. own load leaving ashes-of lond taking and sin way-on went. Sudhō mī nī-jū pa-thok-sī-chū, hằng u-sü idū bhari idüsü khai-ju Simple man also returned, and him-by load that there other mī-sū sī-lan dī-chū, ang-lan pi-kvor-sú. Idū bhārī-rū khai-rī man-by leaving went. taking up took. That load-on some khai-chu sai tāng-lan-chū u·sū idu-sai phar-sa laii-sū chibung-nū strange marks seeing him-by that opening flour-by filled tāng-nī-sū. Idosū idū idū bhārī aphi söng-rü kur-sū, idū-sū u-sū found. Then he that load own hame-to brought, and him-by idū laii-gü chyar-sü antāj dā gsū phiri apliŭ chim-rī-gū that flour-of weighing measure for again his neighbour-of khāng thō·chū. U-gū chim-ri-su nad hisão pai-lan-chû wooden-measure asked. Hisneijhbour-by this way knowing. sūdhō aphī chhānā-jū phā-gū mī-sū philan laii tang-chū. tō idü simpleman-by own hut-to ashes-of instead flour found, then that chhānā-lē mē mī-sū apī hãng idősű ilű p**ō-sū**, u-gi pliā-gū rāng ma man-by own hut-to fire set. and then he ita ashes-of selling not hãng tar-chū, khi-sai-lan sõn⊈•rū thok-thai pi-rā-sū gāngrū jò gā-sū could, and hopeless village-lo returning came and what doing u-sū lhē-sū idū-dāng-sai dalo chich-chū, him-by therefore much repeated. *was*

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

Whoever digs a pit for another, he himself falls into it. A tale.

In a certain village there lived a very simple man who possessed a hut and some sheep and goats. His neighbours who envied him, took opportunity of his simplicity, and tried to drive him out of the village. One day when his sheep and goats were grazing in the jungle, they threw them down a precipice and killed them all.

The simple poor man took the hides of the sheep and goats, and went to a city to sell them. On his way night befell him, and he took refuge in a cave in the jungle. After midnight a thief came, bringing some stolen property, and sat down at the entrance of the cave. Hearing the noise, the man within the cave became much alarmed and tried to hide himself in the hides, which he had brought. On hearing the rustling of the hides in the cave, the thief was startled and ran away, leaving all the money he had brought behind him. The simple man took the money in his hand and went home.

In order to measure the money he had brought, he went to one of his neighbours and asked for a wooden measure. In order to accertain what he had brought his neighbour applied tar to the bottom of the measure. When the simpleton had measured his money, he brought the measure back, and some rupees stuck in the tar at the bottom. The neighbour then became greedy and asked the simple man how and where he had got

so many rupees. He said that he had got them by selling the hides of his sheep and goats. Filled with envy and greed his neighbour then killed all his own sheep and goats, and took the hides away to sell them, but in vain, for he only got a few rupees in exchange for them.

He then got angry and set fire to the simple man's hut, and reduced it to ashes. The simpleton put the ashes together in a bag, and went off to sell them. On the way he left his bag somewhere and went a little off to a spring, in order to drink water.

In the meantime another man, who carried a load of flour, left his load there and went to drink water. On returning he made a mistake, left his own load there, and went off with the load of ashes. When the simpleton came back, he took the load which the other man had left, and went off. Seeing some strange marks on the load, he opened it and found it to be full of flour. He then brought the load to his house, and in order to see how much flour there was, he again asked for his neighbour's measure. When the neighbour had ascertained that the simpleton had got flour in exchange for the ashes of his house, he set fire to his own hut, but was not able to sell the ashes. He then became afflicted and went home, and much regretted what he had done.

CHAUDANGST.

Chaudangsi is the dialect spoken in Parti Chaudangs in Almora. Chaudangs is situated between the Kali and Dhauli Rivers, from their confidence methwards. It is about twelve miles in length, and about eight miles in breakth, containing about 100 square miles of mountainous country between Khela and Nirpaniyo litura. The inhabitants are Bhōṭiās, and they occupy about eleven small villages.

The revised estimate of the number of speakers is 1,485.

The Chaudangsi dialect has not been dealt with by any authority. The remarks which follow are based on the materials forwarded for the purposes of this Survey, viz., a version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son, a version of a well-known popular tale, and a list of Standard Words and Phrases. They have all been prepared by Baba Gobind Prasad, B.A. None of them are originals, but they have all been translated into the dialect. It is not therefore certain that they in all particulars faithfully represent the real state of affairs. The ensuing remarks are, however, exclusively based on them, and they are therefore given with some reserve.

Chaudangsi has been influenced from various sources, and is in some respects a mixed form of speech. Aryan vernaculars have contributed to the vocabulary, and also, to some extent, modified the grammar. There are also indications which point to an old influence exercised by other forms of speech.

Pronunciation.—The vowels a, i, and u may be long or short. E and o are apparently always long. Long and short vowels sometimes interchange in the same word; thus $at\bar{i}$ and ati, that; $j\bar{i}$ -g and ji-g, my; $m\bar{i}ng$ and $m\bar{i}ng$, a plural suffix, and so forth. The specimens are not sufficiently accurate to enable us to lay down definite rules about such points.

Final vowels are often dropped; thus, ati, ati, and at, that. This is very commonly the case in suffixes. Thus the suffixes of the case of the agent and the genitive are usually s, g, respectively. Sometimes, however, fuller forms ending in sē, sai, and gai, respectively, are also used; thus, jī-s and jī-sai, by me; apī-g and apī-gai, his. Similarly, the suffix of the most common verbal noun is m, but sometimes also ma; thus, jā-m, to eat; dī-m, to go; ra-rā-m-chū, on becoming; syū-syunj-ma-chū, having collected.

On the other hand, an a is sometimes inserted between concurrent consonants in order to make the pronunciation easier. Thus, tung-a-m, to drink; am-a-g, of the road, and so forth.

Different vowels are often interchangeable; thus, $lk\bar{\imath}$ -s, and $lh\bar{e}$ -s said; \bar{o} and \bar{u} , he; rangey \bar{a} and ringey \bar{a} , sister; ing- $k\bar{o}$ - $t\bar{\imath}$ and yung- $k\bar{o}$ - $t\bar{\imath}$, behind; $dh\bar{a}nj$ - $n\bar{\imath}$ -dhung- $m\bar{\imath}$ - $m\bar{a}ng$, servants, and so forth. Compare the various re-duplicated forms of verbs.

Final consonants are often dropped. Thus, $l\bar{a}$, Tibetan laj, hand; $ph\bar{u}$, Tibetan phug, cave, and so forth. Compare, however, tig, Tibetan gchig, one; tuk, Tibetan drug, six, and so forth. Note also $n\bar{i}$, Tibetan gnas, to be; $lh\bar{i}$ -s, Tibetan bzlas, said, etc.

The numerous initial compound consonants of classical Tibetan are usually simplified. Thus, chhū, Tibetan bgo, share; pī, Tibetan bzhi, four; chī, Tibetan bchu, ten; iyad Tibetan brgyad, eight; lak-chhyap, Tibetan lag-gdub, ring; tig, Tibetan gchig, one; nis, Tibetan gnyis, two; ngaii, Tibetan lnga, five; mu!, Tibetan dngul, silver; gvī, Tibetan dgu, nine; phī, Tibetan spyng, expel; lhā, Tibetan zla, moon; lhī-s, Tibetan

bzlaz, said; chim, Tibetan khyim, house; dhung, Tibetan rdung, beat; ra-ch, Tibetan rma-ba, ear, and so forth. Note the substitution of a cerebral for compounds containing an r in tuk, Tibetan drug, six; dā, Tibetan phrag, envy.

In a few cases a prefixed consonant is, however, retained, and a vowel is inserted in order to facilitate the pronunciation. Thus, pi- $d\bar{i}$ -s, gone; pi- $r\bar{a}d$, come; pa- $jy\bar{a}ng$ -d- $al\bar{i}$, was dead.

Note finally the existence of soft aspirated consonants; thus, dhung, beat; dhang-mi, slave.

There is no indication of the existence of tones in the materials available.

Articles.—There is no definite article. The pronoun $ud\bar{\imath}$, $ud\bar{\imath}n$, a certain, and the numeral tig, one, are used as an indefinite article; thus, $ud\bar{\imath}$ $b\bar{a}$, tig $b\bar{a}$, a father; $ud\bar{\imath}-n$ $m\bar{\imath}-g$, of a man.

Nouns.—Gender is distinguished in the usual way by means of separate words or by adding words denoting 'male,' female,' respectively. Thus, $m\bar{\imath}$, man; mi- $n\bar{a}$ $sir\bar{\imath}$, woman: $s\bar{e}nd$, boy; cha- $m\bar{e}$, girl: $r\bar{a}ng$, horse; $m\bar{o}$ - $r\bar{a}ng$, mare: $m\bar{a}$ - $l\bar{a}$, he goat; $m\bar{a}$ - $s\bar{a}ng$, she goat: $n\bar{a}u$ - $khv\bar{\imath}$, dog; $chh\bar{a}\bar{\imath}$ $n\bar{a}u$ - $khv\bar{\imath}$, bitch, and so forth.

Number.—There are two numbers, the singular and the plural. The plural is not marked when it appears from the context. The usual plural suffix is māng or mang; thus, mī-māng, men; ling-māng, bulls; mā-sāng-lā-sāng-mang, sheep and goats. Note the reduplication of the noun in dhang-mī-dhung-mī-mang, servants. The list of words further contains forms such as bā titi, fathers; mat bā, many fathers, fathers.

Case.—If we can trust the specimens, the various cases are frequently confounded. The nominative, i.e. the case of the subject of intransitive verbs, does not take any suffix. Thus, na-g na-nū pirād-anī, thy younger brother has returned.

The same form is often also used to denote the object of transitive verbs; thus, ji-s $v\bar{o}$ sir \bar{i} mat $chy\bar{a}k$ -d $\bar{a}gas$, I have beaten his son with many stripes. Often, however, the dative, or even the genitive, is used instead; thus, u-s $s\bar{u}dh\bar{o}$ $m\bar{i}$ - $j\bar{a}$ $r\bar{u}$ - $r\bar{u}$ - $t\bar{a}$, him-by simple man-to asked; at \bar{i} bai-m $\bar{a}ng$ -g u-s rang-m $k\bar{u}$ - $k\bar{o}r$ - $t\bar{a}$, those skins-of him-by selling carried, he carried those skins off to sell them; at \bar{i} $bh\bar{a}r\bar{i}$ -g $k\bar{u}$ - $k\bar{o}$ -r- $t\bar{a}$, he brought that load. I am not, however, sure that the use of the genitive suffix g in such cases is correct.

The subject of transitive verbs is usually put in the case of the agent, which is formed by adding the suffix s to the base; thus, $b\bar{a}$ -s $lh\bar{z}$ -s, the father said. Instead of s, we sometimes find fuller forms such as $s\bar{s}$, $s\bar{e}$, sai; thus, kha-mi- $s\bar{s}$ - $r\bar{s}$ u- $j\bar{a}$ khai- $r\bar{s}$ ma $d\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{a}$ anyone-by him-to anything not gave; $ud\bar{s}$ $ch\bar{s}$ - $s\bar{e}$ $ch\bar{s}$ - $r\bar{s}$ $m\bar{a}$ t rai-g ra- $r\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{s}$, a thief-by theft-of property bringing came; u-sai $s\bar{e}$ -s, him-by struck, he struck. Sometimes also the suffix of the agent is dropped; thus, \bar{u} $th\bar{s}$ -thar- $t\bar{a}$, he sent; sai- $ph\bar{a}$ $j\bar{a}$ -d- $n\bar{s}$ -s, the swine were eating.

The suffix s is also used to denote the instrument; thus, $d\bar{a}$ -s, by envy; kharbar-s, by the noise.

The suffix of the dative is $j\bar{a}$; thus, us $ap\bar{\imath}-g$ $b\bar{a}-j\bar{a}$ $jav\bar{a}b$ $d\bar{a}-g$ $lh\bar{\imath}-s$, him-by his father-to answer giving said. $J\bar{a}$ apparently corresponds to classical Tibetan la, Ladakhī a. It has already been remarked that it is also used to form the accusative. Moreover, it denotes the various relations indicated by the locative and terminative cases of classical Tibetan; thus, $chim-j\bar{a}$, to the house; $r\bar{\imath}-j\bar{a}$, in the fields, etc.

The suffix of the ablative is chi, usually preceded by king, in, or blue, on thus, dhang-mi-dhung-mi-mang-kung-chi, from among the servants; light-klar-chi, from the village.

Instead of chi we sometimes find chyding; thus, parassivally not obving funtare. God's will from against; lai chyang but, all from good, best.

The suffix chī is apparently also used to form a genitive and a limitive. Thus, atī rājū-chī udīn bud mī-jā, to a good man of that village; sīr-chī, in the jangle,

The usual suffix of the genitive is g, instead of which we once that ga: thus, where of a man; $ap\bar{i}$ -g and $ap\bar{i}$ -gai, his own. It has already been remarked that the suffix g is occasionally added in the accusative. The genitive is sometimes expressed by simply putting the governed before the governing noun, without any suffix; thus, we be considered in thy father's house; $n\bar{a}ch$ -syung-d kalāt, dance-making (-of) noise.

It has already been remarked that the suffix cir sometimes also has the meaning of a genitive.

There are only some few traces of the terminative; thus, $h\bar{e}$ -r, on; kha-r, on; $t\bar{i}$ -chen- $t\bar{u}$, in a corner; ya-r, in; $j\bar{i}tu$ and $j\bar{i}t\bar{u}$, before; $lar\bar{e}$, before, and so forth. Usually, however, the dative is used instead.

The dative is also used as a locative. Instances have already been quoted under the head of dative. The usual locative suffix is kung; thus, $ph\bar{u}-kung$, in the cave. The real suffix is probably ung; compare at-ung, there; compare $j\bar{t}tu$ and $j\bar{t}t\bar{u}$, before. A suffix $y\bar{e}$ can be added; thus, am-kung- $y\bar{e}$, on the road; at-ung- $y\bar{e}$, there.

Other relations are indicated by means of postpositions. Some are added to the base; thus, gundā, between; hēr, on; mitatū, under; yar, in; tē, with; tē-bhā, tī-bha, to-gether with. Others are preceded by the governed noun in the genitive; thus, bē-lī-chī and bēlī-s, for the sake of (also added to the base); bhitarū, within; dāng-s, for; jitu, near; larē, before; nīnam, near; yung-kō-tī, behind. Bhā, together, and ti, on, are added to the dative.

Adjectives.—Adjectives precede the noun they qualify in the nominative; thus, sid rāng, the white horse; mīd sirī the younger son. Forms such as raksid, worthy; angsid, tall, are formally participles.

The particle of comparison is chyang or chyāg-rī; thus, lai chyang bud, all from good, best; u-g pī võ rangsyā chyāg-rī bhung-tai anī, his brother is tailer than his sister. Instead of chyāg-rī bhungtai we should probably read chyāng-rī bhungtai. Compare Ladakhī sang.

Numerals.—The numerals are given in the list of words. They precede the word they qualify; thus, nis siri, two sons.

Pronouns.—The following are the personal pronouns:—

gaggagatan gagagatan kan kan kan peruntum Hali Hali Balandar meli sebi Pel	I	We	Thea	You	He, she, it	They
Nom.	jī	i n	gan	gani	ű, rð	24-7
Agent	ji-s, ji-sai	in-s, in sai	ga-e, ga-sai	11 ani-ssaisā	u-s, u-szi	##-s, -s2i
Gentive	ji-g	in-g	na-7. ns	५४मर-१	и- с	uri-g

Other forms are jī-dāng-su, jī-dāng-sē, jī-dāng-chī, for me; in-jā-khar-chī, from us; nā-dāng-s, for thee; vō bēlchī, for his sake; usī-gundā, between them, and so forth.

Demonstrative pronouns are hi- $d\bar{i}$, this; $at\bar{i}$, at, that; at-ung, into it; $at\bar{u}$ khar- $ch\bar{i}$, from them.

The Aryan loan-word $ap\bar{\imath}$, self, is used as a reflexive pronoun; thus $ap\bar{\imath}-\bar{a}p$, he himself; $ap\bar{\imath}-g$ and $ap\bar{\imath}-gai$, own.

Interrogative pronouns are $kha-m\bar{\imath}$, what man? who? kha, what? $ul\bar{a}ng$, $ul\bar{a}$, $ul\bar{a}ng$. an, how much, how many? $han\bar{a}$ syung-ag, how doing? how? $kha-l\bar{e}-ki$, $kha-ch\bar{a}r-ki$, why? that, because. Indefinite pronouns are formed from the interrogatives by adding $r\bar{\imath}$; thus, $kha-m\bar{\imath}-s\bar{\imath}-r\bar{\imath}$, anyone-by; $khai-r\bar{\imath}$, anything. Note also $ud\bar{\imath}$, $ud\bar{\imath}n$, a certain; $y\bar{a}ng$, another; $d\bar{u}m\bar{a}$, some.

Relative pronouns are $j\bar{o}$, $j\bar{e}$, who, which; jai-g, whose; $j\bar{o}-kha-r\bar{\imath}$, whatever. The relatives are Aryan loan-words, and relative clauses are usually formed according to Aryan grammar. Thus, tig $m\bar{\imath}$, jai-g tig $chhand\bar{\imath}$ $n\bar{\imath}nn\bar{\imath}$, $h\bar{a}ng$ $r\bar{\imath}-n\bar{\imath}-n\bar{\imath}$, one man, whose one hut was, also lived; $rupiy\bar{a}$ $j\bar{o}$ u-s u- $t\bar{\imath}$ - $bh\bar{a}$ rai-sid- $n\bar{\imath}s$ $atungy\bar{e}$ $hv\bar{e}$ -g $d\bar{\imath}$ - $d\bar{\imath}$ - $n\bar{\imath}$, the rupees which him-by him-with brought-had there leaving went, he went away leaving the money he had brought; $j\bar{o}$ ji-g $an\bar{\imath}$, $at\bar{\imath}$ na-g $an\bar{\imath}$, what mine is, that thine is.

In $j\bar{v}$ na-g $m\bar{u}l$ - $t\bar{u}l$ chy \bar{u} -chyu-ma-ch \bar{u} , who thy property squandered-having, the conjunctive participle is used after the relative pronoun. In such cases we can detect traces of a more ancient state of affairs, when relative clauses were expressed by means of participles.

In this connexion we may also note that Chaudangsi has borrowed some Aryan conjunctions such as jab, when; ki, that. Adverbial clauses are, therefore, often expressed as in Aryan forms of speech, instead of by means of participles.

Verbs.—The Chaudāngsī verb is, broadly speaking, formed according to the same principles as those prevailing in other connected forms of speech. There are, however, at least two points in which the dialect has developed on different lines. In the first place we find that the language makes frequent use of reduplication in the formation of verbal tenses such as $k\bar{u}$ - $k\bar{o}r$ - $t\bar{a}$, brought. The reduplication usually occurs in the past tense of verbs, and it will therefore be dealt with later on. Forms such as syung- $t\bar{a}$ and $sy\bar{u}$ -syung- $t\bar{a}$ made, seem to show that the reduplication simply, intensifies the meaning of the verb, and it should therefore perhaps be compared with the reduplication in Mundā languages.

The other characteristic feature of Chaudāngsī grammar is the distinct tendency to distinguish the various persons of verbal tenses, at least in the singular. Thus, sai- $t\bar{u}$, I strike; sait-an, thou strikest; sai- $t\bar{a}$, he strikes. A similar tendency is also found in other connected forms of speech. The formation of the second person singular in Chaudāngsī is interesting. An n is added to the base in the present tense; thus, $lh\bar{e}$ -n, art; saitan, strikest. This n is followed by other suffixes, especially in the past; thus $d\bar{e}$ -n- \bar{a} , goest; $s\bar{e}$ -n-s, struckest; di-n-as, wentest; $t\bar{o}$ -n-as, broughtest; syung-n-as, didst. This use of the pronominal suffix n before the tense suffix corresponds to the practice in compound tenses in the Mundā languages. Compare Mundārī si-tan-ing-tae-ken-a, ploughing-I-was, I was ploughing. It is therefore possible that the distinction of person in verbal forms is not only due to the influence exercised by Aryan vernaculars but also to the existence of a pre-Aryan element in the population.

Verb substantive.—The bases of the verb substantive are the or the and at or no. The latter base is often preceded by an a in the present. It is perhaps the last remnant of an old prefix; compare classical Tibetan gnas-pa, to live, to stay. I cannot ascertain any rule for the use of this a, for we find forms such as obtained and chin-and, it is proper, used promise uously. The usual forms of the present tense are as follows:—

 Sing. 1. lhē, anī-yē
 Plur. 1. lhē-nē

 2. lhē-n
 2. lhē-nī

 3. lhē, anī, nī, anēn (sic).
 3. lhē-nē, lhī-nī, ana-nē.

The plural forms are apparently compounds. The difference between the second person plural on one hand, and the first and third persons on the other, is probably artificial. Compare the form $lh\bar{i}-n\bar{i}$, they are.

Another base at, or perhaps t, occurs in gan kha $m\bar{n}$ at, thy what name is? The same base is probably contained in ruksid ma $t\bar{a}y\bar{e}$, I am not worthy. $T\bar{a}y\bar{e}$ should perhaps be written $tangy\bar{e}$ and is probably a future. Compare the remarks under the head of participles, below. Compare also id or d in rai-s-id, brought; $j\bar{a}$ -i- $n\bar{i}s$, ate, and so forth.

The base lhī apparently also occurs in the form alī. Compare ṭāng-d-alī, is alive; pa-jyāng-d-alī, was dead, and so forth.

The past tense is formed as follows:-

Sing. 1. nīyē-s Plur. 1. ni-nhē-s
2. niya-n-s, nī-nī-n-s 2. ni-nhē-s

3. nīs, nī-nī-nī, nī-nī-nē. 3. nī-nhē-s, nī-nī-nī, nīn-nī, nī-nī-nai.

In one place a form ka- $lh\bar{\imath}$, was, also occurs. The initial k perhaps represents the old prefix g.

It will be seen that l and n are freely interchanged in the various forms of the verb substantive. The consonants are perhaps, as in so many other cases, simply phonetical doublets.

Other forms of the verb substantive are ma $n\bar{\imath}-y\bar{e}$, I am not; $n\bar{\imath}-g$, living, being; lhyāng, I shall be; niyāng, will be, is; nīyang-nī, will be, are; lhyāg-ē, may be; lhē-nī, to be, and so forth.

Finite verbs.—The various bases of the verb substantive are freely used in the formation of the tenses of other verbs. The number of forms is very great, and it is not always possible to analyse them with certainty. The following is a synopsis of the principal forms occurring in the materials available.

Present time.—A common present tense is formed by adding $n\bar{\imath}$ to the base; thus, $chhy\bar{\imath}-n\bar{\imath}$, I get; $d\bar{\imath}-n\bar{\imath}$, he goes; $r\bar{a}-n\bar{\imath}$, he comes; $d\bar{\imath}-n\bar{\imath}$, we go, they go; $d\bar{\imath}-n\bar{\imath}$, you go. The interchange between d and d in the base $d\bar{\imath}$, go, is probably due to the existence of an r in the original base; compare classical Tibetan 'a-gro-ba and 'a-dong-ba, to go.

No corresponding form occurs in the second person singular. In $d\bar{e}$ - $n\bar{a}$, thou goest, a suffix \bar{a} is added to the personal suffix s. This \bar{a} is perhaps a form of the copula.

In di- $y\bar{e}$, I go, the suffix \bar{e} or $y\bar{e}$ is perhaps also an old copula. It is apparently only used in the first person singular. Compare $an\bar{i}$ - $y\bar{e}$, I am; ma $t\bar{a}$ - $y\bar{e}$, I am not. Forms such as $buj\bar{a}$ - $y\bar{e}$ -s, he entreated, apparently show that it cannot be restricted to that form.

Another present is formed by adding t, probably the suffix of a present participle, to the base. This t is then followed by w in the first person singular; an in the second vol. III, part 1.

person singular; \tilde{a} in the third person singular, and $an\tilde{e}$ in the plural. Thus, $sai-t-\tilde{u}$, I strike; sai-t-an, thou strikest; $khv\tilde{e}-t-\tilde{a}$, he digs; $syung-t-an\tilde{e}$, they do. Other, compound, forms of the present are $syung-t\tilde{a}t\tilde{u}$, I am dying; si-chig $an\tilde{v}y\tilde{e}$, I am dying; $j\tilde{a}-g$ $an\tilde{e}n$, he is grazing; $sy\tilde{o}k-sid-an\tilde{v}$, he is sitting, and so forth.

Past time.—The present tense is often used with the meaning of a past; thus, $r\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{i}$, he came; $ma\ tar-n\bar{i}$, he could not; syung- $tan\bar{e}$, they did; $t\bar{a}$ - $tn\bar{e}$, they began; mat-chvaung- $by\bar{u}$ - $n\bar{i}$, he was much alarmed. Forms such as kab- $l\bar{i}$ - $n\bar{i}$, overtook; $lh\bar{i}$ - $n\bar{i}$ - $t\bar{a}$, said, are probably of the same kind.

The common suffix of past tenses is s or as; thus, $d\bar{e}$ -ya-s, I went; tan-s, he saw; syung-s, he made; $bujay\bar{e}$ -s, he entreated. Instead of s, we sometimes find $s\bar{o}$ or ch; thus, syung-s \bar{o} , he did; tan-ch, he was found.

In the second person singular s is preceded by the pronominal suffix n; thus, $s\bar{e}$ -n-s, struckest; $t\bar{o}$ -n-as or $t\bar{o}$ -n-as, boughtest; $d\bar{a}$ -n-as, gavest; syung-n-as, madest.

Forms such as $s\bar{e}$ -g-as, I struck; sai-g-as, I have struck; $d\bar{a}$ -g-as, I have given; $t\bar{a}l\bar{e}$ -g-s, I transgressed, are only used in the first person singular. The g which is inserted before the tense suffix is probably a pronominal suffix of the first person. Compare Kanāwrī and connected dialects.

Various suffixes can be added to the form ending in s, such as id (compare classical Tibetan yod), $t\bar{a}$, ni, and so forth. Thus, rai-s-id, had brought; tan-s-t- \bar{a} , he found; $b\bar{a}b$ - $s\bar{e}$ - $n\bar{i}$, he stopped. Such forms are all compounds. The same is the case with forms such as $s\bar{e}$ - $n\bar{e}$ -s, we struck, they struck; $s\bar{e}$ - $n\bar{i}$ -s, you struck. Other compounds are formed by adding the verb substantive to the participle ending in d or id; thus $j\bar{a}$ -d- $n\bar{i}$ -s, eating were; $ta\bar{i}$ -s-id- $n\bar{i}$ -s, he had found; tai-s-id- $al\bar{i}$, found, he has been found; $t\bar{a}ng$ -d-ka- $lh\bar{i}$, alive became, and so forth.

A past participle, which is used to form a compound past tense, is derived from the base by adding a prefix pa, pi, or pu. Thus, pi- $d\bar{\imath}$ - $n\bar{\imath}$, he went; pa- $jy\bar{a}ng$ -d a- $l\hat{\imath}$, dead is, he has died; pa- $jhy\bar{a}ng$ -ach, he has died; pi- $r\bar{a}$ -d $an\bar{\imath}$, he has come back, and properly also pu-nyar-t and pu-nyart $al\bar{\imath}$, he was lost.

A prefix ka occurs in forms such as ka-syung- $t\bar{a}$, did; $dh\bar{a}s\bar{\imath}$ ka- $l\bar{\imath}$ -chu, he has become married; $t\bar{a}ng$ -d ka- $lh\bar{\imath}$, he became alive. In kab- $l\bar{\imath}$ - $n\bar{\imath}$, overtook, kab is used instead.

The past tense is very often formed by adding suffixes such as $t\bar{a}$, etc., $n\bar{\imath}$, and $tat\bar{a}$, etc., to a reduplicated base. Final consonants are not repeated in the reduplication. The vowels are usually the same as in the base. E and ai, however, are reduplicated by means of $\bar{\imath}$; \bar{o} by means of \bar{u} ; and ya is repeated in the form i. If the original vowel of the base is short, it is often lengthened in the reduplication. Thus, $sy\bar{u}$ -syung- $t\bar{u}$, I have done; $k\bar{u}$ - $k\bar{v}$ - $t\bar{u}$, he carried off; i-yang- $t\bar{a}$, he heard; si-sai- $t\bar{a}$, he killed; $l\bar{u}$ -lup-ta- $t\bar{a}$, he applied; $sy\bar{u}$ -syung- $tan\bar{e}$, they did; $d\bar{i}$ - $d\bar{i}$ - $n\bar{i}$, he went; ra- $r\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{i}$, he came; $t\bar{i}$ - $t\bar{e}$ - $n\bar{i}$, he wished. Note pu-pi-ta- $t\bar{a}$, applied; pu- $pv\bar{i}$ - $t\bar{a}$, took; $ph\bar{u}$ -phar- $t\bar{a}$, opened, where the u in the repeated syllable seems to be due to the influence of the following p.

The reduplicated base is sometimes followed by the past suffix si or chi, to which nī is added; thus, ipā-da-dang-si-nī, they were startled; hī-hī-chi-nī, he asked: kaip-chi-nī, they struck.

Note finally forms such as $chh\bar{u}$ - $chh\bar{u}$ - $t\bar{a}$, divided; $ph\bar{u}$ - $ph\bar{u}$ - $k\bar{a}y$ - $t\bar{a}$, wasted. $T\bar{i}$ in the former is probably the same as ta, and $k\bar{a}y$ in the latter seems to belong to the base.

Future.—The suffix of the future is apparently ang; thus, thy-ang, I shall be; dang-yē, I shall go; thi-yang, I shall say; in-sai sē-yang-nē, we shall beat.

This form is also used to denote what may, or will probably, take place; thus, ulang un ku-kat niyang, how many years will he have lived? how old is he?

The nature of the final consonant of the future suffix is not quite certain. Forms such as $s\bar{e}$ -ya-n, thou wilt strike; ma $t\tilde{a}$ - $y\bar{e}$, I shall not be, point to the conclusion that the vowel of the suffix is simply nasalized. Forms such as $lhy\bar{z}z$ - \bar{e} , I may be, on the other hand, seem to show that the suffix contains a g, if the g of this form is not a pronominal suffix of the first person singular.

Forms such as syung-lhē, might make; syung-nē, should make, are originally compound forms of the present.

Imperative.—The base alone is used as an imperative; thus, $l\bar{n}\bar{z}$, be: $d\bar{z}$, give; tay, put. Forms such as $j\bar{a}$ -g- $n\bar{e}$, eat, are apparently compounds, 'eating be,' compare $d\bar{e}$ -g-an \bar{e} , go, lit. going be. The same is perhaps the case with forms such as fal- $n\bar{i}$, put; chuk-ta- $n\bar{i}$, put on, and so forth. The final $n\bar{i}$ of such forms can, however, also be a plural suffix. Compare Manchāt \bar{i} , etc.

The most common imperative suffixes are apparently y, ya, or $y\bar{a}$; thus, syung-y, do; $hav\bar{e}-y$, draw; dhung-aya, beat; $gv\bar{\imath}-ya$, bind; rai-iya, bring; $d\bar{a}-y\bar{a}$, give. Compare also $d\bar{e}-y\bar{e}$, go; $j\bar{a}-g-y\bar{e}$, eat.

A suffix san or chyan is added in kor-san, take; ong-chyan, see.

Forms such as jam, eat; chham, walk, are originally infinitives.

There are no instances in the specimens of a negative imperative.

Verbal nouns.—The base alone is occasionally used as a verbal noun; thus, tung, to drink. The genitive of this form is commonly used as an adverbial and conjunctive participle. See below.

The usual verbal noun ends in m; thus, sai-m, to strike; pim-m, to fill; syung-m $b\bar{e}-l\bar{i}-ch\bar{i}$, in order to do; $j\bar{a}-m$ $yamb\bar{a}$, eating exceeding, more than they can eat; $r\bar{a}ng-am$, to sell; $by\bar{u}-m-s$, fearing-with, from fear, and so forth.

The suffix na, in lhē-m-na ruksid, worthy to be called, is probably a dative or locative suffix.

Other tense bases can also be used as verbal nouns; thus rang-s-id-s, by selling.

Participles.—Verbal participles are formed by adding the suffix d (id) or t; thus, $j\bar{a}$ -d ($n\bar{\imath}s$), eating (was); pi- $r\bar{a}$ -d ($an\bar{\imath}$), come is; $ch\bar{\imath}$ -bin-d, full; ruk-s-id, worthy; ang-s-id, high; punyar-t, lost, and so forth.

A very common adverbial and conjunctive participle is formed by adding the suffix g, i.e., by putting the base in the genitive. Thus, $d\bar{\imath}$ -g, going; $kharch\ syung$ -g, expenditure making. $Th\bar{o}k$ -sig, in $th\bar{o}k$ - $sig\ r\bar{a}$ -g, coming back, is apparently the genitive of the past base. Forms such as ru-chig, rising; si-chig, dying, apparently also contain the suffix ch, s, which is used in the formation of the past tense.

A conjunctive participle is formed by adding $ch\bar{u}$ to the verbal noun in m; thus, syū-syung-ma-chū, having done; $h\bar{u}$ -hu-im-chū, having called; $r\bar{\iota}$ -rē-chim-chū, rising; ra-rā-m-chū, becoming.

Isolated forms are tan-ni, seeing; syung-am, making, and so forth.

Passive voice.—There is no passive voice. Forms such as jiyō dungs, I at struck, probably mean 'me struck.' The passive forms occurring in the list of Standar Words and Phrases are not, however, so clear that they can be analysed with certainty.

Causals.—The materials available are not sufficient to show how causals ar formed. We may perhaps compare sai, kill; sī, die: rai, bring; rā, come, and so forth

Negative particle.—The negative particle is a prefixed ma; thus, ma $lh\bar{\imath}-ni$ did not pass; ma $d\bar{a}-t\bar{a}$, did not give; ma $t\bar{a}l\bar{e}-g-s$, I did not transgress; ma $d\bar{a}-n-as$, dids not give.

There are no instances of an interrogative particle in the specimens.

Order of words.—The usual order of words is subject, object, verb. Qualifying additions precede the qualified word. The indirect object sometimes precedes and some times follows the direct one. Under the influence of Aryan vernaculars, relative sentences and other subordinate clauses are commonly expressed by using relative pronouns and conjunctions.

[No. 48.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

CHAUDANGSI.

SPECIMEN I.

(PATTI CHAUDANGS, ALMORA.)

PHUKĀ SIRĪ-G RIĪ. PRODIGAL SON-OF STORY.

sirī nī-nī-nī. Udin mī-g nis Hāng atū-khar-chī mīd-s a:ii-g Certain man-of two 80n8 were. And them-from young-by 01015 lhī-s, 'hē bā, mālmatā-kung-c'iī jē chhū jī chhyū-nī, dā. father-to said, 'O father, property-in-from which share I me give.' get, gundā u-g jō māl-tāl chhū-chhu-tītā. Hāng mat usī Hang usi-s him-by them between his which property divided. And miny days mīd lai māl-tāl bhā ki sirī-s svū-svung-ma-chā ma lhī-nī vānam were that young son-by all property together made-having far pi-dī-nī, hāng achhai luchā-kām kung nī-g apī-g lai mālmatā răiū there riotous-deeds and in living own all country went. property māl lai phū-phukāy-tā. Hāng jab jö nī-s kharch u And when his what property was all expenditure chyū-chyu-ma-chū, atī akālo lī-lī-nī, hāng ū tang li-li-ni, rājū-kung mat that country-in big famine arose, and he needy became. mī-jā bhā dī-g nī-nī-nī. atì rājū-chī udīn bud Hang ũ he that country-of certain good man-to together going stayed, bēlī-chī thī-thir-tā. Hāng ātī-jā apī-g khētī-kung saiphä rō-m ũ ŭ grazing his field-in swinefor sent. himAnd he he gãr khusi-s api-g jā-d nī-s kō sŏ-s jō saiphā atī dan those bark and berries-with which swine eating were gladly own belly pim-m tī-tē-nī, hāng kha-mi-sī-rī u-jā khai-rī dātā. Hāng ma jab anyone-by him-to any-thing not wished, and gave. And when bhūrī-dām dhāng-mīlhī-s ki, 'ji-g bā-g ū apī jā phām rā-nī u-s he self-to sense came him-by said that, 'my father-of hired servantsdhung-mī-mang-kung-khar-chi ulängan jā-m yan ba kuţū tan-d-nīeating bread how-many more in-from gettingsi-chi-g anī-yē. Jī rī-rēchim-chū ji-g khī-g vang-nē, hāng jì បនិ-ខ្ល hungering dying I risen-having and am. my father of bā. ji-s parmēsarai-g marii lhī-yang, "hē dang-yē häng u-jā iītū God-of and him-to will-say, "O father, me-by rcill-go #ear will

jam-tam hāng na-g jītū pāp syū·syung-tū. Gar jī phirī na-g and of-thee before sin did. And I again from against thy ruks-id ma taye; ji kang sirī lhē-m-nā apī-g bhūrī-dām dhang-80% to-be-called worthy notam; me also oron hired mi-dhung-mi-mang-kung-chi jikã syungy.", Hang tig νŏ rachi-g api-g like make." in-of one And he rising his iītu dī-s. Parantu iab ū mat vānam nī-s ki u-g hā-s father-of near went. Butwhen he very far that his father-by was khãt hān⊆ u-jā rā-nī, tan-s hãng u-s jhyang-g himandhim-to compassion came, 8010 andhim-by running going galē-kung da-dā-tā. ñ kū-kōr-tā hāng hū Hang sirī-s u-jā neck-on carried him and kissgave. Andson-bu him-to lhi-ni-ta. 'bā. ii-s parmēsarai-g mariî chyang jam-tam gãr na-g father, me-by said. God-of willfromagainst andthy najar-kung pāp syū-syung-tū, hāng jī phirī na-g sirī lhē-m-nā ruks-id sight-in I sindid, andthyson to-be-called worthy morenivē.' Parantu bā-s apī-g dhang-mī-dhung-mī-mang-ja lbī-s ma ki. am. father-by own not Butservants-to said that. 'lai chyang bud chuksin khang-g raiiya hāng atī ũ chūnī: 'all from goodrobe taking-out bringandthat himput-on: and ãr lā-kung lak-chhyap paulā u-g likī-kung chuktanī. In-s his hand-on ring andfeet-on shoesput-on. Us-byhāng jām-tung-m-sa khusī syung-m chilī. Khale-ki hidī ji-g eating-drinking-by and merry making proper-is. Becausethis sirī pajyāng-d-alī, hāng phirī tang-d-alī; ū punyart-alī, phirī tais-id-alī. 80n dead-was, and again alive-is; helost-was, again found-is.' Tab dā-g ū suku tātnē. Then they merry making began.

At lāng-vās u-g pūd sirĭ rī-jā nīs. Hang iab ũ rā-s That time-to his elder son field-on was. Andwhen he came hāng chim-g nīnam van-lang-tā tō u-s rājō-bājō hāng nāchand house-of near reached thenhim-by singing-playing anddancesyung-d kalāt ivã-tā, Hang dhang-mi-dhung-mi-mang-kung-chi tig u-s making noise heard. Andhim-bu servants-in-from one mĭ hū-huim-chū rū-rū-tā ki, 'hīdī·g kha matlab anī?' called-having askedman that, this-of whatmeaning is?' Hang u-s u-jā lhē-s ki. 'na-g nanū pirād anī, hāng And him-by him-to saidthat, ' thu brotherreturned is,and na-g bā-s sakanu syung-s. kha-chār-ki gãr 11-8 ŭ bud thy father-by feast made. because him-by himand goodchhyālō tan-s.' Hang ũ rūrū rã-s hāng ū chi-kung dī-m ma safe found.' And he angercameand he house-in to-go no

Hidī-bēlī-s u-g tachch. bā chhyang-pang rā-s hāne ū bujāvēs. wanted. This-for his father out-side came and him entreated. Hang u-s apī-g bā-jā javāb īā-x lhī-s ki, 'ong-chyan, And him-by own father-to answer giving said that, ·lo. I ulāng-n un kharchi na-g sēvā syung-tātū: hāng jīs ulānz-pā-rī 80-many years from thy service did: and $me^{-\frac{1}{2}\gamma i}$ ever na-g bachan ma tālēg-s. Hang 22-s jī-jā ulāng-pā-rī tig thy word not transgressed. Andthee-by me-to erer one lāsang-g mīd lach kang ma dānas ki iī anī-g sāthū-mang-tī-bhā goat-of small kid even gavest that I my-own notcompanions-of-with ais-khus syung-lhē. hidī sirī Parantu na-g jō pātarī-mang-tī-bhā merriment should-make. But thu this son whoprostitutes-of-with na-g māl-tāl chyū-chyu-ma-chū hannē rā-s at-nē ga-s jā-m tung-am thy property then thee-by cating drinking squandered came as svung-nas,' Hang u-jā bā-s lhī-s. sirī. can barābar iī-tī-bhā madest. And father-by him-to said, 6 son, thou aircays of-me-with nīnīns; hāng iō ji-g anī. atī lai na-g anī. Hidi vājabī livedest: and what mine alli8, that thine is. This proper nīs suku gãr in-s svung-am khusī svung-nē. kha-chār-ki was that us-by to-make and happy merry should-make, because pa-jhyang-ach, phiri ṭang-d-kalhi; bang punyar-t, hidī iō na-g nanū this thy brother dead-was. again alive-is; ıcho and lost-was. tan-ch. phirī again found-is.'

[No. 49.]

Udin

attempt

did.

song-kung

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

CHAUDĀNGSĪ.

SPECIMEN II.

(PATTI CHAUDANGS, ALMORA.)

tig

chbandī

gār

chōr

thief

kharbar-s

noise-by

jai-g

khvē-tā, apī-āp atung dang-s kun gan-ni, tio Jō mi-g gāng himself into falls. Who another man-of sake-for pitdigs, a riī. story.

sūdhō

mî,

barō

Phū-g

Cave-of

tig

Certain village-in whosehut very simple man, oneand nī-nī-nē. U-g ās-pās-chī dūmā mā-sāng lā-sāng ninni, hāng mī. lived. Hisneighbourhood-of goatsalso80me sheep were. men, bakhat lhāmī-s ũ jö u-tī-bhā dā syung-tane, tang-ag u-g simplicity-by opportunity getting him him-with his who envy made, song-kung-khar-chi phi-m dhandā syū-syung-tanē. Hang tig jyā, village-in-from to-expel endeavour made. And one day, nī-nī-nai, บราั-ร usi-g tig iab u-g mā-sāng lā-sāng sir-chī iā-g when his jungle-in eating them-by themone sheep goats were, khar-chī kakan-tinai hāng hinā syung-g lai-g sī-sē-tanē. biyar yū dovonand thus doingallkilled. precipice from threw Atī biehārā sūdhō khū-khō-tā mī-s atī māsāng lāsāng-mang-g bai That simple man-by those sheep skinstook-out poor goats-of ati bai-mang udin sahar-kung rāng-m kū-kōr-tā. Am-kung-ye u-ja and those skins him-to certain to-sell Way-in city-in carried. minch kab-lī-nī. hāng ũ tig janggal-kung udīn phū-kung būb-sē-nī. befell night andstopped. he one jungle-in certain cave-in Bhar-minch-ag yung-kō-tī chor-se ra-rā-nī, udīn chōrī-g māl rai-g Midnight-of aster certain thief-by theft-of property bringing came, hàng ati-s atī phū-g murang-pāyē syū-syung-tā. \mathbf{A} tī phū-g dērā him-by that cave-on door-on made. That cave-of lodging bhitarū usi-g kharbar hāng yang-ag atī mat chvaung-byū-ni, mī inside them-of noise hearing thatalarmed-became. and man much atī bai-mang-g bhitarū, iō u-s rai-s-id. apī-s chyam-g him-by those inside, which him-by brought-had, him-by skins-of hiding-of lang syū-syung-tā.

bhitarñ

inside

bai-mang-g

skins-of

ipā-da-dang-si-nī hāng byū-m-s lai rupiyā, †3 1,∙9 12-11-1-1 few-with all respect which harry the with startled-was and rai-s-id nī-s. atung-yê livê-g di-di-ni. South 1...1.48 3:1 there leaving went. Simple months these brought-having was, rupiyā lā-kung syū-syung-tā hāng chim-jā dī-dī-nī. rupees hand-in made and kouse-to went.

u-s taing-s-id nies, atī hall-ch Atī māl, iō na-m-2 That money, which him-by brought had, that measuring-of expector apî-g parausî-mang-j udî-ja-chîn tiz Khang li-bl-chi-li him-by his neighbours-in someone-from the voolen-nearing asked. hidī chhēl synna-m hell-eid ku bat-c parausī-s Atī That neighbour-by this matter-of knowledge making for that history rai-s, khāng-g būt-kung lied lai-lup-pud. Att said-beart mi-s kha what brought, measure-of bottom-on for applied. That simple movedy khāng vāpas dadā-tā, parantu atī būţ-kong lisu-kung pā-g rupees measuring-of measure back gave, but its bottom-in dūmā rupiyā katpchi-nī. stuck. some rupees

Hidi-s u-g parausī-jā lobh li-li-ni. U-s sā-lhb mi-jā ri-ri-tā This-by his neighbour-to avarice came. Him-by simple man-to aske? 'ga-s hilang rupiyā hanā syung-g ulo-khar-chī tan-s ?' 1-5 ki. that, thee-by so-many Rupees how doing wherefrom broughtest? Him-by apī-g mā-sāng lā-sāng-g bai-g rang-s-id-s. Atī sādhō goats-of skin-of selling-by. That simple man-of *heep said that own u-g parausī-s apl-gai izi mā-sāng lõhh-s dā-s hāng rupiyā-g envy-by and Rupees of greed-by his veightour-by own all sheep u-s rang-m kū-kōr-tā, la-sang sī-sai-tā hāng atī bai-māng-g parantu him-by to-sell carried. skins bat and those killed goats dāmā rupiyā ta-tan-tā. pan-s u-s bidī khālī, kha-chār-ki because him-by this bargain-by few rupees in-pain,

Hidi bāt-kung rūsū ra-rām-chū atī-s sūdhō mī-g chhandī-kung This matter-in anger coming-after him-by simple man-of hut-in phā ka-syung-tātā. Sūdhō mī-s atī-s pupita-tā, hāng mế Simple man-dy ashes-of him-by ashes maile. and put, fire syung-ta hang tig thaili-kung ta-ta-ta hang ati rang-kor-m-g ja m**ā** and it selling-carrying-of bag-in put and one made toget**her** bēlī-chī dī-dī-nī. Am-kung-yē u-s apī-g thailī am-g lī-chentū ta-ta-tā, Way-on him-by own tag read-of corner-in put, sake-for went. hāng tig dhārū-kung, jō dūmā vānam nī-s. Li tung di-di-ni. was, water to-drink icent. far apring-in, which little and one 3 c 2

Atī bich dūsarō jō hi-g bhārī tig mî-s. atung-yē tā-g That time other man-by, who flour-of load one there leaving tī dī-dī-nī, thok-sig rā-g · u-s lōsi-g tung bhārī apī-g back water to-drink went. coming him-by mistaking own loadbhārī ang-g kū-kōr-tā hãng dī-dī-nī. Südhö hvē-g phā-g шì kang taking brought Simple leaving ashes-of loadand went. man also atī bhārī. thok-sig ra-rā-nī hāng u-s jō dūsarō mi-s hvē-g back came andhim-by thatload, which other man-by leavingdī-s. ang-g rī-rai-tā. Atī bhārī-kung khan yēk rōyē tan-nī went, taking-up brought. That load-on 80me strange marks seeing phū-phar-tā, u-s ati-g hī-s chibind Tab tan-s. û atī him-by itopened, flour-by full found. Then he that bhārī-g chim-jā kū-kōr-tā, jai-bang-kung apī-g u-s atī hī-g antāj load-of home-to brought, where own him-by thatflour-of weight syung-m bēlī-chī phirī apī-g parau-si-g khāng hī-hī-chi-ni. U-g making for again own neighbour-of measure asked. His. parausi-s hidī tai-g ki sūdhò mī-s chhandi-g apī-g phā-g neighbour-by thissimpleknowing that man-by own hut-of ashes-of badlā hī tans-tā, tō u-s kang api-g chhandī yar mẽ instead flour found. then him-bu alsoown hut infire pu-pvī-tā, parantu ũ ati-g pha-kang rang ma tarnī. bāng udās applied, but he it8 ashes-also sell. not could, andafflicted lhi-g chim-jā thok-sig ra-rā-nī, hāng jō-kha-rī u-s syung-s atī-g becomina house-to back came, andwhatever him-by didthat-of belī-chī barō pachhtā syung-sō. sake-for much repenting did.

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

Whoever digs a pit for another, he himself falls into it.—A tale.

In a certain village there lived a very simple man who possessed a hut and some sheep and goats. His neighbours, who envied him, took opportunity of his simplicity, and tried to drive him out of the village. One day when his sheep and goats were grazing in the jungle, they threw them down a precipice and killed them all.

The simple poor man took the hides of the sheep and goats, and went to a city to sell them. On his way night befell him, and he took refuge in a cave in the jungle. After midnight a thief came, bringing some stolen property, and sat down at the entrance of the cave. Hearing the noise, the man within the cave became much alarmed and tried to hide himself in the hides, which he had brought. On hearing the rustling of the hides in the cave, the thief was startled and ran away, leaving all the money he had brought behind him. The simple man took the money in his hand and went home.

In order to measure the money he had brought, he went to one of his neighbours and asked for a wooden measure. In order to ascertain what he had brought, his neighbour

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applied tar to the bottom of the measure. When the simpleton had measured his money, he brought the measure back, and some rupees stuck in the tar at the bottom. The neighbour then became greedy and asked the simple man how and where he had got so many rupees. He said that he had got them by selling the hides of his sheep and goats. Filled with envy and greed his neighbour then killed all his own sheep and goats, and took the hides away to sell them, but in vain, for he only got a few rupees in exchange for them.

He then got angry and set fire to the simple man's hut, and reduced it to ashes. The simpleton put the ashes together in a bag, and went off to sell them. On the way he left his bag somewhere and went a little off to a spring, in order to drink water.

In the meantime another man, who carried a load of flour, left his load there and went to drink water. On returning he made a mistake, left his own load there, and went off with the load of ashes. When the simpleton came back, he took the load which the other man had left, and went off. Seeing some strange marks on the load, he opened it and found it to be full of flour. He then brought the load to his house, and in order to see how much flour there was, he again asked for his neighbour's measure. When the neighbour had ascertained that the simpleton had got flour in exchange for the ashes of his house, he set fire to his own hut, but was not able to sell the ashes. He then became afflicted and went home, and much regretted what he had done.

BYÁNGSĪ.

This is the dialect spoken in Patti Byangs, in the north-eastern corner of Almora. The Patti of Byangs is bounded on the north by Tibet, on the east by Tibet and the Kali River, on the south by the Kali River, and on the west by the lateral chain culminating in Yirgnajung and Patti Chaudangs. The inhabitants are Bhōtiās, who occupy seven villages. The revised estimate of the number of speakers is 1,585.

Two specimens and a list of Standard Words and Phrases have been prepared by Babu Gobind Prasad, B.A. They are the only foundation of the notes on Byangsi grammar which follow.

Byāngsī in most characteristics agrees so closely with Chaudāngsī, that it seems probable that both represent the same dialect. The materials at my disposal are not, however, so trustworthy as to allow us to settle the question with absolute certainty.

Pronunciation.—The phonetical system is, broadly speaking, the same as in Chaudangsi. I shall only mention some few features where the two dialects apparently differ.

'Merry' is graisi, grēsi, grausi, or gōsi. The word is probably borrowed from the Aryan <u>khush</u>ī. There are no other instances of a similar interchange of vowels.

The prefixes ka and pa also have the forms kau, kab, and pab, respectively. Thus $ka-l\bar{\imath}-n\bar{\imath}$ and $kab-l\bar{\imath}-n\bar{\imath}$, became; $kau-n\bar{\imath}-n\bar{\imath}$, was; $pa-jy\bar{a}ng-n\bar{\imath}$, had died; $pab-jy\bar{a}ng-t\bar{a}$, killed.

K and g are interchangeable in the suffix k(ai) or g(ai); thus, hva-k, hva-kai, leaving; $d\bar{a}-gai$, giving.

In a similar way, ch is sometimes interchanged with j; thus, $j\bar{\imath}$ $pa\text{-}chy\bar{a}ng\text{-}y\bar{e}\text{-}s\bar{o}$ and $j\bar{\imath}$ $pa\text{-}jy\bar{a}ng\text{-}y\bar{e}\text{-}s\bar{o}$, I am killed.

Such interchange between hard and soft consonants seems to show that the soft consonants are pronounced with a strong aspiration. Aspirated soft consonants are not, however, marked in writing.

Parallel forms such as $hv\bar{e}$, ha, and $h\bar{o}$, leave; $g\bar{a}ng$, $g\tilde{a}r$, and $g\bar{a}r$, other, and so forth, are due to an inaccurate marking of the sounds. They show how cautious we must be in drawing conclusions from the spelling of the specimens.

Articles.—The numeral tig, one, and the pronouns $un\bar{a}$, $kham\bar{\imath}$, and $g\tilde{a}_i$, a certain, are used as an indefinite article; thus, tig $m\bar{\imath}$, a man; $kham\bar{\imath}$ $b\bar{a}$, a father; $un\bar{a}$ $m\bar{\imath}$ -gai, of a man; $g\tilde{a}i$, $sang-kh\bar{u}$, in a village. An n is often added to $kham\bar{\imath}$ and $un\bar{a}$ in the list of words; thus, $kham\bar{\imath}n$ $cha-m\bar{e}$ -s, by a daughter. Instead of tig we occasionally find $t\bar{\imath}$; thus, $t\bar{\imath}$ - $jy\bar{a}$, a certain day.

Nouns.—Gender is distinguished by using different words or by adding words denoting 'male,' 'female,' respectively. Thus, $l\bar{e}$, bull; rai, cow: $r\bar{a}ng$, horse; $m\bar{o}$ - $r\bar{a}ng$, mare: $ni\cdot kh\bar{\iota}$, dog; chhai-ni- $kh\bar{\iota}$ and $m\bar{o}$ -ni- $kh\bar{\iota}$, bitch.

Number.—The usual plural suffix is $m\bar{a}ng$ as in Chaudāngsī; thus, $cham\bar{e}$ - $m\bar{a}ng$, daughters. The list of words also gives forms such as $b\bar{a}$ $titt\bar{\iota}$, and mat $b\bar{a}$, fathers.

Case.—The case suffixes are the same as in Chaudāngsī. Thus, $b\bar{a}$ -s, by the father; $m\bar{i}d$ -sē, by the younger; $r\bar{i}s\bar{u}$ -sē, from envy; $b\bar{a}$ -jā, to the father; $pa\bar{n}ch\bar{a}$ -jā-khar-chī, from with a shopkeeper; $b\bar{a}$ -g, of a father; $sir\bar{i}$ -gai, of the son; chim-jā, in

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the house; ti-tu, near, towards; ya-r, on; la-rai, before; kha- $ch\bar{a}$ -rai, why? and so forth.

The case suffixes are sometimes dropped, and sometimes also interchanged. Thus, ji-g $k\bar{a}ku$ $sir\bar{\iota}$, my uncle's son; $ph\bar{a}$ -gai $jam\bar{a}$ $syungs\bar{o}$, ashes-of together made, gathered the ashes; $g\bar{e}_{!}\bar{a}$ - $ch\bar{\iota}$, with the berries; $ap\bar{\iota}$ - $ch\bar{\iota}$, to himself; $ap\bar{\iota}$ -gai $ch\bar{a}$ -sim-sai $jy\bar{\iota}m$, self-of hiding-by attempt, an attempt to hide himself, and so forth.

Some of the most usual postpositions are $kh\bar{u}$ and $kh\bar{u}$, in; $t\bar{\imath}$, with; $t\bar{\imath}$ - $j\bar{o}r\bar{u}$ and $t\bar{\imath}$ -rakt, together with; $bi\bar{\imath}$, with; $gund\bar{a}$, between (also added to the genitive); $j\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{\imath}$, on; khar- $ch\bar{\imath}$, from; yar, on, which are usually added to the base. Others are combined with the genitive of the governed word. Such are $bhitar\bar{u}$, inside; $d\bar{a}ng$ -sai, $d\bar{a}ng$ - $ch\bar{\imath}$, for the sake of (also added to the base); $ikh\bar{u}$ and $y\bar{e}kh\bar{u}$, under (also added to the base); khai, instead of; $lar\bar{e}$, before; $n\bar{e}r\bar{o}$, near; nigam, behind; nintam, after, and so on. Jam-tam, against, is added to the instrumental. Thus, $paim\bar{e}sar$ -gai $m\bar{a}y\bar{a}$ -sai jamtam, God's will against.

Adjectives.—Adjectives precede the noun they qualify in the nominative. Thus, bud mi·māng, good men; unā-n yad sirī, a bad boy.

Forms such as tha-id, high; rukhsit, like, etc., contain the suffix id which is also used to form participles. Another common suffix in adjectives is th or tha; thus, va-th, far; chin-th, proper; $sy\bar{a}ng-tha$, old. Compare $pa-jy\bar{a}ng-tha$, struck.

The particle of comparison is chyāng, chyāng-rī, or chyā-rī; thus, u-chyāng dōmā bud, him-from a-little good, better; u-g pī vō rangsyā-chyāng-rī bung-tha-in, his brother his sister-from tall-is; lai-chyāng-rī bud and lai-chyā-rī bud, all from good, best.

Numerals.—The numerals will be found in the list of words. They are mainly the same as in Chaudāngsī. They precede the word they qualify; thus, nīsī sirī, two sons.

Pronouns. The	following ar	e the personal	pronouns:
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			· I	We	Thou	You	He	They
Nom.	•		ji	in, ing .	gan	ganī	vaii, ū.	usī
Agent	•	•	jī-s, jī-sē, jī-sai .	in-s .	ga-s, ga-sai .	ganī-s .	u-s; u-sai.	usī-s
Genitive	•		ji-g, jī-gai	ing-g .	na-g, na-gai, nā	ganī-g .	<i>u-g</i>	usī-g

Other forms occurring in the materials are, $jiy\bar{e}$ and $ji\ lai$, we; $gay\bar{e}$, you; ing-gai, his; $v\bar{o}$, his; $ap\bar{\imath}$ and $ap\bar{\imath}$ -gai, own, and so forth. $Jiy\bar{e}$, we, and $gay\bar{e}$, you, apparently contain the demonstrative pronoun $y\bar{e}$, this; $ji\ lai$, we, literally means 'I all.'

Demonstrative pronouns are ai, $aid\bar{i}$, $y\bar{e}$, $n\bar{e}$, this; ati, vaii, dai, that. Than in than- $jy\bar{a}$, to-day, is probably also a demonstrative pronoun.

Interrogative pronouns are $kham\bar{\imath}$, who? $un\bar{a}$, who? khai, what? $ul\bar{a}ng$, how much? ham, how? and probably also $h\bar{a}ng$, who? They are often used as indefinite pronouns; thus, $kham\bar{\imath}$, some; $un\bar{a}$, a certain. In that case, however, $r\bar{\imath}$ is often added. Thus, $kham\bar{\imath}$ -si- $r\bar{\imath}$, by anybody; khai- $r\bar{\imath}$, anything; kha- $r\bar{\imath}$, some.

Relative pronouns have been borrowed from Aryan forms of speech. Thus, $rupay\tilde{a}$ $j\bar{o}$ ra-rai- $t\bar{a}$, the rupees which he had brought; $j\bar{o}$ jal $j\bar{i}$ $chhy\bar{u}$ -kan vaii \bar{i} $d\bar{a}$, which share I-shall-get, that me give. The relative sentence in such cases

sometimes precedes and sometimes follows the word or sentence it qualifies. The Aryan relatives have not, however, become naturalized in the dialect, and we often find relative clauses expressed by means of interrogative pronouns or by juxtaposition. Thus, hāng king khva-tā āpī-āpū atī-khū gang-gan, who pit digs, himself therein falls; u-gai dab-jā-tī hāng u-tī rakt rīsū syung-g tā-sō, his neighbours who envied him; nē sirī. atī pātar-syā-mā tī jōrū nā-gai āl-māl yakvak-tī-sō, this son, he (i.e., who) together with harlots wasted your property.

Note also conjunctions such as jab, when; $h\bar{a}ng-h\bar{a}ng$, when—then; ki, that; $h\bar{a}ng$, that, and so on.

Verbs.—Byāngsī conjugation in most particulars agrees with Chaudāngsī. The reduplication is less frequent, but still common enough to be considered a characteristic feature of the dialect; thus, $r\bar{u}$ - $r\bar{u}$ - $t\bar{a}$, asked; $d\bar{\imath}$ - $d\bar{\imath}$ - $n\bar{\imath}$, went; si-syung- $t\bar{a}$, did.

There is apparently a similar tendency as in Chaudāngsī to distinguish the second person by adding an n; thus, $lh\bar{\iota}-n\hat{o}$, art, you are; $da-nan-s\bar{o}$, gavest. Similar forms are, however, also used in other persons; thus, ma-da-nan, he did not give; $t\bar{o}k-t\bar{a}-tanan$, he is grazing; $sa-n-s\bar{o}$, we struck, and so forth. It seems as if the tendency to distinguish the person of the subject in the verb is less pronounced than in Chaudāngsī.

Verb substantive.—The verb substantive is formed from various bases such as $l\bar{\imath}$ or $lh\bar{\imath}$, $n\bar{\imath}$, in; dai, and perhaps also $t\bar{a}$, id, an, and $y\bar{e}$. Thus, $lh\bar{\imath}-y\bar{e}$, I am, we are; $lh\bar{e}-n\bar{o}$, thou art; $l\bar{\imath}$, $lh\bar{\imath}$, in, is; $n\bar{\imath}-y\bar{e}-s\bar{o}$, I was; $n\bar{\imath}-n\bar{\imath}-s\bar{o}$, you were; $n\bar{\imath}-s\bar{o}$ and $n\bar{\imath}-n\bar{\imath}-n\bar{\imath}$, they were, and so forth. The base $t\bar{a}$ seems to mean 'to remain.' It occurs in forms such as syung-g $t\bar{a}-s\bar{o}$, doing were; sa-kai $t\bar{a}-m\bar{o}$, beating, lit. beating to be. The latter form corresponds to Hindī $m\bar{a}r^at\bar{e}$ $rah^an\bar{a}$ from which it has been translated. Id occurs in participles such as $sy\bar{o}ngk-s-id$ in, sitting is, and an seems to be contained in forms such as $d\bar{\imath}-g-an$, he goes, lit. going he is. It is probably only another form of in, or else it is abbreviated from $an\bar{\imath}$. Y\bar{e} can perhaps be inferred from forms such as $lh\bar{\imath}-y\bar{e}$, I am; $di-y\bar{e}$, I go, and so forth. It seems to be used in the first person singular only.

Finite verb.—The various bases of the verb substantive are freely used in the formation of the tenses of finite verbs.

Present time.—The usual suffix of the present tense is $t\bar{a}$, first person $t\bar{u}$, $t\bar{o}$, second person tan. Thus, sa- $t\bar{u}$, I strike; sa-tan, thou strikest; khva- $t\bar{a}$, he digs. The suffix tan of the second person probably contains a pronominal suffix. It can, however, also be composed of ta and in. Compare tin-tan-an, they get, where a suffix an, probably abbreviated from $an\bar{i}$, another form of the copula, has been added. Compare in-an, they are; ma-da-nan, he did not give.

The suffix an or ano is apparently added to the participle ending in g or k in the common present forms ending in gan or kan; thus, $chhy\bar{u}-kan$, I shall get; $d\bar{\iota}-gan\bar{o}$; thou goest; $r\bar{a}-gan$, he comes.

The suffix $y\bar{e}$ is apparently only used in the first person; thus, $lh\bar{i}-y\bar{e}$, I am; $hi-chi-y\bar{e}$, I die.

Compound forms are sa-k $t\bar{a}-t\bar{o}$, striking am; di-g $ny\bar{e}$, we are going, we go; di-g $n\bar{i}-l\bar{a}$, you go; $t\bar{o}kt\bar{a}-t$ anan, he is grazing; vasat in, he is living; $sy\bar{o}ngksid$ in, he is sitting; $ch\bar{o}k-t\bar{a}ng-n\bar{i}$, again-alive-is, and probably also di-g-pat, they go.

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Past time.—The present tense is often used with the meaning a past; thus, $luk-t\bar{a}$, he said; ma da-nan, he did not give; $j\bar{a}-gan$, they are; $ch\bar{o}k-phang-gan\bar{a}$, fled back; ma $tar-n\bar{a}$, could not, and probably also forms such as $sy\bar{o}ng-tinan$, they made; $laktap-t\bar{a}-t\bar{a}$, he applied, and so forth.

The common suffix of the past is s or $s\bar{o}$, $s\bar{u}$, sau; thus, $n\bar{\imath}$ - $s\bar{o}$, was; $r\bar{a}$ - $s\bar{o}$, came; $t\bar{a}l$ - $s\bar{u}$, I transgressed; ting-sau, he got. Instead of s we sometimes find ch; thus, $t\bar{o}nba$ - $ch\bar{o}$, he arrived.

In the second person we find forms such as sa-n-s, struckest; $di-n-s\bar{o}$, wentest; $da-nan-s\bar{o}$, gavest. Compare however $syungn-s\bar{o}$, I did; $sans\bar{o}$, we struck; $san-ch\bar{o}$, they struck, where the suffix s, $s\bar{o}$, etc., has apparently likewise been added to the suffix n, an. Such forms are accordingly compounds. Compare $di-n\bar{e}-s\bar{o}$, we went; $di-n\bar{i}-s\bar{o}$, you went, and so forth.

The suffix s, $s\bar{o}$, etc., is sometimes also added to the suffix $y\bar{e}$ or to a suffix g, k; thus, di- $y\bar{e}$ - $s\bar{o}$, I have walked; di-ya- $s\bar{o}$, they went; gvausi- $y\bar{e}$ - $s\bar{o}$, they made merry; sa-k- $s\bar{o}$, I struck; $d\bar{a}$ -ka-s, I gave. The latter kind of forms only occur in the first person. Compare Chaudāngsī.

The s-suffix is sometimes also added to $s\bar{i}$ or $t\bar{i}$; thus, $y\bar{a}ng$ - $s\bar{i}$ - $s\bar{o}$, heard; ya-kvak- $t\bar{i}$ - $s\bar{o}$, devoured.

Past tenses are further formed from the reduplicated base, or from the base preceded by one of the prefixes pa, pab, pi, and ka, kab, kau, or $k\bar{o}$, usually by adding one of the suffixes $t\bar{a}$, $n\bar{i}$, and $s\bar{o}$. Thus, $pa-p\bar{a}$, measured, having measured; $pi-d\bar{i}$, went; $(t\bar{a}ng-d)$ $k-l\bar{i}$, (alive) was; kab-tin, was found; ka-tyan (-tinan), (has been) found; si- $sy\bar{u}ng$ - $t\bar{a}$, did; da- $d\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{a}$, gave; ra-rai- $t\bar{a}$, brought; $t\bar{i}$ -tan- $t\bar{a}$, and tan-tan- $t\bar{a}$, got; pa- $hv\bar{e}$ - $t\bar{a}$, left; pab- $jy\bar{a}ng$ - $t\bar{a}$, killed; pi- $k\bar{o}r$ - $t\bar{a}$, carried; ka- $d\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{a}$, gave; kab-luk- $t\bar{a}$, said; $d\bar{i}$ - $d\bar{i}$ - $n\bar{i}$, went; pa- $jy\bar{a}ng$ - $n\bar{i}$, was dead; pi- $d\bar{i}$ - $n\bar{i}$, went; ka-jyar- $n\bar{i}$, was alarmed; kab- $s\bar{e}$ - $n\bar{i}$, stopped; kau- $n\bar{i}$ - $n\bar{i}$, and $k\bar{o}$ - $n\bar{i}$ - $n\bar{i}$, lived; $n\bar{i}$ - $n\bar{i}$ - $s\bar{o}$, was; pa- $jy\bar{a}ng$ - $ch\bar{o}$, died; pi- $r\bar{a}$ -sau, came; kab-dai- $s\bar{o}$, gavest. Note also pa- $th\bar{o}k$ - $s\bar{i}$ - $n\bar{i}$, returned, where $n\bar{i}$ is preceded by the same $s\bar{i}$ as we have already found in use before $s\bar{o}$. It is probably the suffix of a conjunctive participle, compare thog- $s\bar{i}$, returning.

Compound forms are syung-g tā-sō, doing were; rō-kai tā-sō, grazing were; sa-k-tā-tō-niyēs, I was beating; ra-s-id-in, had brought; yāng-s-ig-an, wished, and so forth.

Isolated forms are $h\bar{u}ng$, kissed; $pu\text{-}chh\bar{u}\text{-}t\bar{\imath}$, divided; $by\bar{o}$ $lh\bar{\imath}\text{-}n\bar{e}g\bar{\imath}$, the marriage has taken place.

Future.—The present is commonly used as a future. Thus, $sa-t\bar{o}$, I shall strike; $diy\bar{e}$, I shall go; $lh\bar{\imath}-yai$, I shall be; $sa-tan\bar{\imath}$, you will strike. The list of words also gives forms such as $sai-n\bar{o}$, thou wilt strike; $sai-l\bar{o}$, he will strike, they will strike; $sai-n\bar{e}$, we will strike. The suffix $n\bar{o}$, $l\bar{o}$, $n\bar{e}$ probably contains the verb substantive $l\bar{\imath}$ or $n\bar{\imath}$. The form $luk-v\bar{o}$, I shall say, contains a suffix \bar{o} or $v\bar{o}$.

Imperative.—The base alone is used as an imperative; thus, $j\bar{a}$, eat; $d\bar{\imath}$, go; $d\bar{a}$, give. Common imperative suffixes are $n\bar{\imath}$, $t\bar{\imath}$, and $y\bar{o}$; thus, $t\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{\imath}$, put; rai- $n\bar{\imath}$, bring; $d\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{\imath}$, give; $k\bar{o}r$ - $y\bar{o}$, take; $g\bar{\imath}$ - $y\bar{o}$, bind; hvangi- $y\bar{o}$, draw. The list of words contains several other forms such as $d\bar{\imath}$ -g- $ay\bar{e}$, $d\bar{\imath}$ - $y\bar{e}$, $d\bar{\imath}$ -gu- $l\bar{a}$, go, and so forth.

There are no instances in the materials available of a negative imperative.

Verbal not ns.—The common suffix used in forming verbal nouns is $m\tilde{o}$, or m; thus, $j\tilde{a}-m\tilde{o}$, to eat; $p\tilde{a}-m\tilde{o}-gai$, of the measuring; $l\tilde{o}-m$, to say.

The base alone is often used as a verbal noun, especially in connexion with postposition; thus, $r\bar{a}ng$, to sell; $tung-kh\bar{u}$, drinking-in, in order to drink; $d\bar{\imath}-d\bar{\imath}-ma-ch\bar{\imath}$,
from the going, having gone; thok-s-ig $r\bar{a}-l\bar{a}ng$, back coming-on, on returning; $pa-l\bar{a}ng-r\bar{e}$, on knowing. Such forms are commonly used as conjunctive or adverbial
participles. An infinitive of purpose can be formed by adding dung or rang; thus, $d\bar{\imath}-dung$, in order to go; $pa-tnan-r\bar{a}ng$, in order to know; syung-am-rang, in order to make.

Participles.—Relative and verbal participles are formed by adding the suffix id or d to the base or to the suffix s of the past. Thus, $t\bar{a}ng-d$ $k-l\bar{i}$, alive was; khu-s-id, stolen; rukh-s-it, like; ra-s-id-in, had brought.

Conjunctive participles are formed by adding $s\bar{s}$; thus, $th\bar{o}g-s\bar{s}$, returning. The reduplicated base is used in the same way; thus, $pa-p\bar{a}$, having measured. Similarly we also find $pa-h\bar{o}-t\bar{a}$, having left.

Most commonly, however, conjunctive participles are formed by adding the suffix of the genitive to the verbal noun which is identical with the base; thus, yang-gai, hearing; $h\bar{o}ng-kai$, having taken out; ra-k, bringing. The form ending in $s\bar{i}$ is used as a verbal noun of the past, and the suffix of the genitive is added; thus, $y\bar{a}ng-si-g-an$, having wished was, wished. Compare the remarks under the head of the present time above.

Other conjunctive participles are formed by adding the suffix of the ablative $ch\bar{\imath}$ or $ch\bar{\imath}$ to the reduplicated verbal noun ending in m; thus, $n\bar{\imath}-n\bar{\imath}-mi-ch\bar{\imath}$, having been; $d\bar{\imath}-d\bar{\imath}-ma-ch\bar{\imath}$, having gone; $ni-nyar-ma-ch\bar{\imath}$, having been lost, and so forth.

Passive voice.—There is no passive voice. Passivity is indicated by the absence of the case of the agent in the subject. Thus, ji pa-chyāng-tha $n\bar{\imath}$ -yē-sō, I struck was, and so forth.

Causative.—There are no certain instances to show how causatives are formed. We may perhaps compare rai, bring, with $r\bar{a}$, come.

Negative particle.—The negative particle is a prefixed ma; thus, ma dai, I am not; ma da-nan, did not give; ma $r\bar{a}$ - $s\bar{o}$, did not come.

Order of words.—The order of words is the same as in Chaudangsi.

For further details the student is referred to the specimens which follow. The first is a version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son, and the second is the translation of a popular tale. A list of Standard Words and Phrases will be found on pp. 535 and ff.

[No. 50.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

BYANGSI.

SPECIMEN I.

(PATTI BYANGS, ALMORA.)

PHUKĀVAT SIRĪ-GAI RYĒNYĒ. PRODIGAL SON-OF STORY.

Hãng vay-yar-chi mīd-sē mi-gai nisī sirī kau-nī-nī. Unā them-in-from young-by man of twoAnd Certain sons were. māl-bathū-khū-kharchī bā-jā kab-luk-ta. 'ai iõ bā. VÕ which share father-to said. 0 father, property-in-from his gundā jī dā. Hãng u-sai usī-gai chhyūkan vaiī jī them-of between I give. Andhim-by get that me dīyasō, \mathbf{m} a pu-chhyū-tī. mat jyā ing-gai māl-bathū Hang And daysnotwent. divided. many hisproperty rājū pi-dī-sō, hāng iamā jorū-thum-gai vath mīd sënd alī-balā far country went. and property allcollecting son young daisai āl-māl ka-urātā. Hang jab vadlan-khữ nī-nī-mi-chī apī atē all property squandered. Androhen his living thereprofligacy-in rājū-khữ barō akāl kab-syūng-tā, ati kharch daii-sai alībalā u-sai made. thatcountry-in heavy famin**e** allthings spent him-by rājū-gai unā kab-li-ni. Häng ati ati ati tang kab-lī-nī, tāng thatcountry-of certain *he* became. And destituteand hearose. u-sai āpī rakt dī-dī-ma-chī kau-nī-nī, hāng ati-sē khētī mī-gai bud and him-by himlived. with. going man-of goodgār gerā-chī ati kvaksin saiphā rau-kor-mū tannalāyatā. atè Hāng khữ and berries-from there those barks And to-feed sent. swine 1:12 kha-mī-si-rī vō saiphā jāgan, gōsigai apī dan pīm-m yangsigan, hāng wished. and anyone-by him his belly to-fill gladlywhich swine ate. u-s luk-tā, apī-chī pi-rā-sau jab atī danan. Hang khai-rī ma him-by said, self-from came when he And anything not gave. dang-mi-khu-khar-chi uläng jā-m chyang-ri bhārō-dāsid bā-gai ʻji-g than eating how-many hired servants-in-from 'my father-of rachi-gai Jī vangbā köṭab tin-tanan, hang rau-sē hichiyē. api jī I arising die. own. I and hunger-by bread get, more 3 x 2 VOL. III, PART I.

diye hãng tītū u-jă lukvō, "ai hā jī-sē paimēsar-gai him-to will-say, "O father, me-by father-of near 90 andGod-of ngō-khữ pāp syūngan-sau. māvā-sai jamtam gar $n\bar{a}$ Hãng jī nintam will-from againstthy face-in have-done.andsinAndI again apī bhārō-dāsid dāng-mī-khữnā sirī lom-lukai lāvak mā dai. Jī to-be-called worthy Methu son nothiredam. own servants-in-Hang ati rachi-gai api syung-gani.", tig-tī-kī rukhsit khar-chi bā-gai make." from one-with equal Andhearising own father-of ati mat vath kau-nī-nī, gai-usī(i.e., usī-gai) titu pi-dī. Airē jab But when he very far near went. was. hisfather-by rā-sō, hãng võ jyang-k dī-dī-ma-chī vo kab-tin-tā. hāng usī-jā khantvā him he running gone-having andhim-to pitycame, and võ bānā-tan-tān-tā hãng Hang sirī-sai hũng. u-jā kab-luk-tā, him embraced andkissed. Andson-by him-to said. 'father nā michchh-khữ pāp syūngan-sō; jī-sai paimēsar-gai māyā-sai jamtam hāng will-from against God-of andthysight-in sin have-done; hẵng ji nintam nā-gai sirī lōm-luk lāvak mā dai.' Airē bā-sai andagain thyson to-sau worthy notam. But father-by apī-gai dang-mī-ja lö-sö, ʻlai chyā-rī khasē-pusē hong-kai bud own servants-to said, 'all thangoodrobetaking-out hãng rai-nī. vī aidī chū-nī. Hãng ū lā-khū lak-chhyap bring, andhimthatput-on. Andhishand-on ring gar likhī-khū babch chū-nī. Ing-g jāmō gãr gvaisi-gai syang-m and feet-on shoeput. Our eating andmerry making chingkhan. Kha-chārai, nē sirī pab-jyāng-chō, jī hãng nintam is-meet. Why. thismy 80n died, andagain tang-d ka-li, pī-nyar-nī, nintam kab-tin. Vo-yar ũ gvau-siyē-sō. alivebecame, was-lost, again found. That-on merry-made. theyVö-yar-khar-chī VÕ põd sirī rai-jā kō-nī-nī, Gãr hãng That-on-from hisbig80n field-in was. And then rā-sō, hāng chim-gai nērō tonba-cho hãng u-sē rājō-bājō gãr came, thenhouse-of near reached andhim-by singing-playing and tham-m-gai karkar yang-sīsō. Hãng dang-mī-khữ-khar-chī ati-sē tig dancing-of noiseheard. Andhim-by servants-in-from one kab-gāl-tā rū-rū-tā. 'yē-māng-gai khai kathā na-nī-nī?' Hãng calledasked, 'these-of whatmatter is ? ' And lū-luk-tā, 'nā u-sē u-jā nūnū pī-rā-nī, hāng gani bā-sē him-by him-to 'thy younger-brother come-is, said. andthy father-by duklāng da-dā-tā. Hãng ũ \mathbf{r} īs $\mathbf{\tilde{u}}$ pi-rā-nī, hãng ٧õ chī-khū feast And gave.' he anger went. and he house-in di-dung ma Aidī-dāng-sē rā-sō. νō bā pangphan rā-sā hāng to-go notcame. Therefore hisfather outcame and

Hãng manyāisö. iavāb dā-gai lu-luk-ta usi apī bā-jā ٧ō Andentreated. he hisfather-to answer giving saidhim in-khar-chī sēvā syang-gai 'dōbai, jī ailāng nā-gai tāg-sō; ki, doing years-from thy service am; 1 so-many 'lo, that, Hãng itāvā-sē $n\bar{a}$ hukm tāl-su. ga-sai hãng ii-sē \mathbf{m} a order transgressed. And thee-by and me-by ever thynotkāch lē danan-sö ulāng-lītā-rī tig mā-lā-gai mid ma jī goat-of smallkideven notgavestone any-time me syung-tō. Airè iōrū gvēsig nā-gai sātū tī apī ki jī Butfriends with together merry might-make. thyI own that āl-māl jōrū nā-gai yakvak-tī-sō, pātar-syā-mā tiati sirī. νē devoured, with together thy property harlotshe 80n, this dāng-sē duklang kab-dai-sō.' vainā usi-gai ga-sai rā-sō, vainā sake-for feast gavest.' histhenthee-by came, then rakt rā-jyā-rī jī-tī usi-jā luk-tā, 'sirī. gan Hãng bā-sē me-with together always son. thou him-to said. Andfather-by nā-gai li. Υē dai. sirī, nī-nī-sō, gãr khalītā-rī ji-gai in, is. Thisthine that. son. mine is. whateverlivedest, andai Kha-chārē. man-ranī-sō. gōsinē-sō ki chin-th nī-sō ing this should-make-merry should-be-glad. Why, thatwe proper was chök-tang-ni; ni-nyar-ma-chú, nintam pab-jyang-ni, hāng nā-gai nūkū revived; having-been-lost. again thy younger-brother then died. nintam ka-tvan-tinan.' again is-found.'

[No. 51.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP. BYANGSI.

SPECIMEN II.

(PATTI BYANGS, ALMORA.)

A POPULAR TALE.

dang-sai gán**g-mi** king khvatā āpi-āpū atī-khū gang-gan. Who other-man for pit digs himself that-in falls. Tig renye. A story.

Gãr sang-khū tig mat lāmī mī. u-gai tig chhandi gãr Certain village-in \boldsymbol{a} very simple him-of man, one hut and mālā nī-nī-nī. dūmā nī-sō. U-gai dabiā-tī hãng u-tī rakt. cattle were, some lived. Him-of neighboun who him-with together rīsū syung-g tā-sō. u-gai bud-syangsid-se bagat ting-gai 11-881 envy making was, his simplicity-by opportunity finding ħim sang-khū-khar-chī hom-rang-g iimHãng syong-tinan. tī-jyā, hãng village-in-from expelling-of attempt made. And one-day, and mālā-māng jārā-khū u-gai rō-kai tā-sō. u-sai usi-gai tie hisgoats jungle-in grazina were, him-bu them a char-kang-tinan, bhivar-khar-chī ī-khŭ hãng ainā syūng-gai dai-sirī. precipice-from down threw. and 80 doing allpab-chyang-tinan.

killed.

Atilāmī mī-sē ati mālā-gai bai khō-sō hãng ai bai-māng Thatsimple man-by those goats-of skins tour.off and these skinssahar khữ rang-mö pī-kör-tā. Am-khti ΥÖ manch ka-lī-nī, hãng ati tig to-sell city carried. Way-on his night became, and he a khamī phū-khữ iārā-khū kab-sē-nī. Bhar-manch-gai nintam unā certa**in** cave-in jungle-in stopped. Midnight-of after 80me khūsid āl-māl khūd-mī ra-k pi-rā-nī, hãng usī-sē atī phū-khữ thief stolen property bringing came. and. him-by that cave-in dangsü si-syung-ta. mormpa-khū Ati phū-ga bhitarū atī-gai kharbarā entrance-at lodging made. That care-of inside him-of at mĭ mat yang-gai ka-jyar-nī. hãng u-sai ati bai-mang-gai hearing thatmuchman alarmed-was, and him-by those skins-of

i-khū, jõ u-sai rasid-in. apī-gai chyāsi-m-sai jyīm svong-so. him-by which brought-had, self-of under. hiding-of attempt made. Phū-gai bhitarū bai-māng-gai kharbarā yang-gai khūd-mī ka-jyar-nī, hãng Cave-of insideskins-of noise hearingthiefalarmed-was. and ivar-mō-dāng-sē dais rupayã jō biī apī ra-rai-tā, atēyai fearing-on-account-of allrupees which him with had-brought, there rupayã chō-g-phāng-ganī. Lāmī mī-sē ai apī lā-khū syang-sō man-by these rupees leaving ran-away. Simplehis hand-in hāng chim-jā pi-dī-nī. andhouse-to went.

Ai māl ίö u-sai tin-sõ usai pā-mõ-gai dāng-sē u-sai property which Thishim-by gotitmeasuring-of sake-for him-by dab-jā-chī-māng khamī-jā tig khāng thok-so. Ati dab-jā-chī-māng-gai neighbours(-of) some with a wooden-measure asked. Those neighbours-by ai kathā-gai dāng-sē patanan-rang hãng u-sai khai rai-sō. thismatter-of sake-for knowing-for that him-by what brought, ikhū-khū ka-sī-tā. khāng-gai galcharē $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{t}\mathbf{i}$ lāmī mī-sē rupayā measure-of bottom-at tarapplied. Thatsimple man-by rupees hãng khang ka-dā-tā, atī-gai ikhū-khū pa-pā gal-charē-sai measured-having measurereturned, andthat-of bottom-at tar-bu rupayã kha-rī pī-dī-nī. lādab Ai-dang-sē usi-gai dab-jā-chī-māng rupees went. This-for neighbours 80me sticking hisU-sai lāmī mi-jā rū-rū-tā, 'gassai ai-lang rupaya löbh pi-rā-nī. asked,thee-by so-many rupees Him-by simpleman-to areedcame. ham hang u-lo-khar-chi tin-so?' lhō-sō hãng, ' ji-g mālā-māng-gai U-sē where-from gottest?' Him-by said that, 'my andgoats-of \mathbf{Ai} bai-gai rangsid-gai.' lāmi mī-gai rīsū-sē $\mathbf{z}\widetilde{\mathbf{a}}\mathbf{r}$ rupayā-gai löbh-sē skins-of selling-by.' This simple man-of envy-by and rupees-of greed-by u-gai dab-jā-chī-māng apī-gai jamā mālā-māng pab-jyāng-tā hāng atī bai-mang killed neighbours own allgoats and those skins rāng pī-kōr-tā, hāng sāchō; kha-chār, u-sai lai ai hãng ati pan-sē why, him-by this bargain-by then all those to-sell carried, and in-vain, chithai rupavā tī-tan-tā. Ai kathā-sai rūsū rā-gai u-sai lāmī mī-gai This matter-by anger coming him-by got.simple man-of rupees chhandī-khū mē lak-tap-tī-tā, hāng atī-gai phā ka-syūng-tī-tā. hut-in and that-of ashes made. fire applied,

thaili-khữ tā-sō, jamā syung-sō hāng tig Lāmī mī-sē phā-gai madeSimple man-by ashes together and one bag-in put, and u-sei rang-mō-khū pī-dī-sō. Ām-khū atī-sai apī thaili sar-gai tam-yar itselling-in went. Way-in bag road-of him-by own pā-hvē-tā hāng tig dhārū-gai. dūmā tamō nī-sō, tung-khū pī-dī-nī. iō tī water drinking-in went. left and one spring-of, which little far was,

Ai-gundā gãr ātū-gai bhārī at-khū pā-hō-tā tig milai-hāng tī This-between alsothere leaving one other flour-of loadman watertung-khữ dī-dī-nī. rā-lāng Thok-si-g **u**-sai lō-si-gai āpī bhārī hva-kai Returning coming-on him-by drinking-in went. mistaking own loadleaving phā-gai āng-so hāng āpī bhārī pī-dī-sō. Lāmī milagai pa-thōk-sī-nī hāng loadtook-up and self ashes-of went. Simple man alsoreturned and u-sai ati gãŗ bhārī jai \mathbf{m} i hva-k dī-sō āng-k kōr-sō. Ati him-by that load which other manleaving taking-up wentcarried. That bhārī-khū $d\bar{o}m\bar{a}$ ēkvarō sai ti-lang usai ati-sai phang-sō ātō-sai load-on somestrange marks seeing-on him-by thatopened flour-by chēbind Hãng kau-ni-ni. u-sai ati bhārī chim-jā pī-kor-tā. lai āpī full was. Then him-by that loadallhishouse-to carried. Hãng u-sai ati āto-gai chyarm chhakā syung-m-rang nintam api Then him-by flour-of thatweightknowledge making-for again hisdab-jā-chī-māng-gai khẵng thō-sō. Usī-gai dab-jā-chī-māng ainā pa-läng-rē neighbours-of measure asked.Hisneighbours thusknowing-on lāmī mī-sē ăpī chhandī-gai phā-gai khai ātō ting-sau hãng usi-rī simple man-by own hut-of instead flour ashes-of gotthen they āpī chhandī-khū mē laktap-tā, airē atī u-gai phā-gai rang tarnī; ma own hut-in fire applied, butthatitsashes sellnotcould: hãng ālā-chi-ma-chū chım-jā hãng thögsi pī-rā-nī, jō andhopeless-becoming house-to back andwhich came, ali-balā u-sai syang-sö usī-gai dang-sai matai pachhta-lichchö. things him-by didthem-of sake-for muchrepented.

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

Whosoever digs a pit for another, he himself falls into it. A story.

In a certain village there lived a simpleton who possessed a hut and some cattle. His neighbour envied him, and sought an opportunity of expelling him through his simplicity out of the village.

One day his goats were grazing in the jungle, and his neighbour drove them over a precipice and thus killed them. The poor man took the skins of the goats and went to town to sell them. Night befell him on the way, and he put up in a cave in the jungle. After midnight a thief came with some stolen property and took up his quarters at the entrance of the cave. When the man within the cave heard the noise, he was much alarmed and tried to hide himself under the skins he had brought. Hearing the rustling of the skins within the cave the thief was alarmed, and fled leaving all the money he had brought with him. The poor man took possession of the money and went home.

He now asked some of his neighbours for a wooden measure, in order to measure the property he had got. In order to know what he had brought, the neighbours put tar at the bottom of the wooden measure. Having measured the money, the poor man returned the measure, and some coins stuck in the tar at the bottom. Therefore his neighbours

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became greedy and asked him how and where he had got the money. He said that he had got it by selling the skins of his goats. From envy and greediness his neighbours then killed their own goats, and took the skins off to sell them. But in vain, for they only got some few rupees in exchange for them. They then got angry and set fire to the poor man's hut and reduced it to ashes. The poor man gathered the ashes in a bag On the way he left his bag on the road-side and went off to and went off to sell them. drink water at a well, a little way off. In the meantime another man left a load of flour there and went to drink water. On returning he by mistake missed his own load and went off with the load of ashes. When the simpleton returned, he took the load which the other man had left. He saw some strange marks on it, and on opening it, he found that it was full of flour. He then brought the load home, and again asked for his neighbours' measure in order to ascertain the weight of the flour. When his neighbours understood that he had got flour in return for the ashes of his hut, they set fire to their own huts, but could not sell the ashes. They then returned home and much regretted what they had done.

Vol. III, part 1.

JANGGALĪ.

Janggali literally means jungle-language. It has been reported as the dialect spoken by the wild Banmanush, i.e., wood-men, who inhabit the forests of Chhipula in Askot Malla. The number of speakers was estimated for this Survey at 200.

It has been found impossible to prepare specimens of the dialect of these wild people. A list of Standard Words and Phrases has, however, been forwarded from the district, and it will be reproduced on pp. 535 and ff. It is too corrupt to allow us to classify the dialect with certainty. On the other hand, it clearly shows that the Janggali of Askot is a Tibeto-Burman form of speech.

It is impossible to give a sketch of Janggali declension and conjugation. In the declension of nouns there are several Aryan forms, and the dialect is on the whole of a mixed character. The pronouns $n\tilde{a}$, I; $n\tilde{a}g$, thou, must probably be compared with Māgari $ng\tilde{a}$, I; nang, thou, etc. It is possible that the dialect is more closely connected with the Tibeto-Burman dialects of Nepal, than with those spoken in Almora. Considering the corrupt state of our materials, I have, however, thought it safest to print the Janggali list after the other Almora lists, and to leave open the question of the closer relationship of the dialect.

This much it seems allowed to state that it has few, if any, characteristics in common with the other Almora dialects.

LIST OF STANDARD WORDS AND PHRASES IN THE WESTERN SUB-GROUP OF PRONOMINALIZED HIMALAYAN LANGUAGES.

VOL. III, PART I.

3 T 2

LIST OF STANDARD WORDS AND SENTENCES IN THE WESTERN

Eng	lish.			Ks	näw*rī	(Basha	hr).			Kan	āshī.			Mar	chāț	(Lahu	d).	
1. One .	•	•	•	Id .			•	•	Idh	•	•	.•	•	Idi	•		•	
2. Two .	•			Nish	•		•		Nyish				•	Juț		•	•	
3. Three.		•	•	Shum		•	•		Shum	•	•	•		Shumu				
4. Four .		•		Pü	•	•			Pu	•				Pi .	•	•		
5. Five .	•	•	•	.Ngā		•			Nga					Ngā .				
6. Six .	•	•	•	Tug	•			-	Tso, cho					T ^o rui, tru	i			
7. Seven		•	•	Stish;	tish	•			Saot		•			Nyizhi .	•			
8. Eight	•	•		Rai	•	•			Ațh	•	•	•		Re .				
9. Nine .	•	•	•	Zgúi; į	gúi	•	•		Non	•	•		•	Kū.				
10. Ten .	•	•	•	Sai	•	•	•		Das	•	•		•	Sā.			•	
11. Twenty	•	•	٠	Nízzā	•	•	•	-	Nyiza	•	•	•	•	Nyiza .	•		•	
12. Fifty	•	•	•	Nish ni	zzā-û	sai	•	\cdot	Chāri u uja da	ja das s; ny	; nyi ish b	shnyi iya u	a.	Nyi-nyizo-	·8ā	•		
13. Hundrež	•	•	•	Ngā níz	zā; r	ā.			das. Shau; n			•		Rā .		•		
14. I .	•	•	-	Ga.	•	•	•	•	Gu.	•		•		Ge.	ı	•	•	
15. Of me	•	•	•	Ang	.•	•	•	•	Ākā	•	•	•		Giu, gyeu			•	
W. Mine	. ;	•	•	Ang	•	•	•		Ākā	•	•			Giu, gyeu			•	
17. We .	•	•	•	Nishī (e shang	(incl.	dual	l) ; ká ; ning kíshang	- 1	Ni; ni n	yismi	8			Ngye-re		•	, •	
18. Of us		•		(incl.) Nishi-n	plur.).				Ni-ka		•			Ngye-ta .				
19. Our .	•	•		Nishī-u,	etc.		•	\cdot	Ni-ka					Ngye-tu .				
20. Thou .				Ka; ki	(16 8 p	ec tfu l)			Κο					Kā				
21. Of thee	•			Ka-n;	ki-n	• .		•	Kan-ka	•			\cdot	Kanu .				
22. Thine	•			Ka-n;	ki-n	,•	•		Kan-ka	•	•			Kanu .				
23. You .	•	•	•	Kishī (plura	(dua	il) ;	kinā	n	Ki		•	•		Kye-re .		•	•	
24. Of you	•	•	•	Kíshī-u		án-u			Kin-ka	•	•	•		Kye-tu .			•	\cdot
25. Your .	•	•		Kíshī-u	; kin	ลิ์ท-น	•		Kin-ka		•			Kye-tu .				

	Char	mba Li h	aļī.		E	unán	(Lab	ul).	
Î tt i, 1	•				Ti-ki	•	•	•	•
Jur	•	•	•	•	Nyis-kin	g		• ,	. •
Shum	•	•	•	•	Sumi		•		
Pi	•	•	•		Pi.	•	•	•	
Ngā	•	•		•	Ngaï		•	•	
Trūi	•	•		•	Trui	•			
Nhi	•	•	•	•	Nyizhi	•	•	•	
Rhē	•	•		•	Gyeï			•	
Kū	•	•	•	•	Gu		•	•	
Sā	•	•	•	•	Chuï		•		
Nīzz	•	•	•	•	Nyiza	•	•	•	
		*** ***			Nyis-saï	chuï	•	•	•
Rā	•	•	•	•	Gya,	•		•	•
Gē	•	•	•		Gyi, ing-	gi	•	•	
Geü, geö	5	•	•		G y i-i	•	•		
Get, ge	5	•	•		G y i-i		•	•	
Yer	•	•	•		Hingzhi		•	•	
Yedu .	•	•	•	•	Hing-zhii		•	•	
Yedu	•	•	•	•	Hing-zhii		•	•	
Kü	•	•	•		Han ;	•	•	•	•
Kā, kenő		•	•	•	Han-gyi .	1	•	•	\cdot
Kā, kēnö		•	•	1	Han-gyi	,	•	•	\cdot
Ker	•	•	•	•	Han-zhi .		•	•	
Kedu	•	•	•]	Han-zhii		•	•	
Kedu	•	•	•	. :	Han-zhii		•	•	-
				!_		7 70	-	F00	<u>ا</u> ا

Rangkas (Almora).	Dārmiyā (Almora).
Tākā	Tākū
Nisī	Nisū
Sum · · ·	Sum
Pi · · ·	Pi
Nai	Ngaii
Tuk	Tuku
Nhisi	Nisā
Jyad	. Jyādū
Gvi	. Gvi
Chī	. Chī
Tānsa	. Na-sā
Nīnsā chī	. Ngā-sa
Nanas	. R
Ji	. Ji
Ji-g	. Ji-gu
Ji-g	. Ji-gu
Nung	. Ji
Nung-g	. Ing-gō .
Nung-g .	. Ing-gō
Ga	. Gai
Gū-g	Go-gā
Gā-g	. Go.ga
Gani	. Gaini
Go-g	Gainī-gū
Go-g	Gaini-gt
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GROUP OF PRONOMINALIZED HIMALAYAN LANGUAGES.

Chaudi	ings	i (Almo	ora).		Byš	ngsi	(Almor	4).		Jang	galî (Almora).		English.
ſig .	,	•	•	-	Tig	•	•	•	-	Дă.		•	•	-	1. One.
Nis d	,	•			Nisī	•	•	•		Nī .			•	\cdot	2. Two.
Sum .		•			Sum	•	•	•		Sug .		•	•		3. Three.
Pi :					Pī		•	•	\cdot	Pā-ri .			•		4. Four.
Ngaii		٠	•							Pa-ngā .			•		5. Five.
Ţuk			•		Ţuk	•	•	•	•	Turkā .				\cdot	6. Six.
Nīs			•		Nis				•	Sätt .		•			7. Seven.
Jyad	•				Jēḍ				•	`Aţţ .		•	•	\cdot	8. Eight.
G√i		•			G√i		•	•	•	Navä .		•	•		9. Nine.
Chi	•	•			Chī		•	•	•	Dahã .		•			10. Ten.
Nasà		•	•		Nasā	•	•	•	•	Bissa .		•		\cdot	11. Twenty.
Ngā-sā			•		Ngā-sā		•	•	•	Păchchāhi	i	•	•		12. Fifty.
Saii					Saii			•	•	На .		•	•	,	13. Hundred.
 Ji .		•	•	•	Ji .		•	•	•	Nā .		•	•		14. I.
Ji-g		•			Jīg		•	•		Nā k hān ī,	and	khaij	76		15. Of me.
Ji-g		-	•		Ji-g			•		Vai nā-hi		•			16. Mine.
In	•	•	•		Ing					Nā khānī,	, mu	ddākh	ā		17. We.
In-g		•	•		Ing-g		•	•		Nā khānī	int	khaiy	ě	•	18. Of us.
In-g		•	•	,	Ing-g	•	•			No .		•	•	•	19. Our.
Gan		•			Gan		•	•	•	Năg	•	•	•	•	20. Thou.
Na-g		•	•	•	Na-g		•	• •	•	Näg khār	ŭ	•	•	•	21. Of thee.
Na-g		•			Na-g	•	•	•	•	Näng	•	•	•	•	22. Thine.
Gani			•	,	Gani	•		•	•	Nãg .	•	•		٠	23. You.
Gani-g		•	•		Gani-g		•	•	•	Nã khảni	pītā	i .	•	٠	24. Of you.
Gani-g		•,		•	Gani-g	:	·•	•		Nã khảni		•	•	•	25. Your.

Eng	lish.			` 1	Kani	w ^e ri.				Kanās	hī.			Man	chāţī (Lahul)	•	
26. He .	•	,	•	Do		•		-	Do, nu .	. ,	•	,	- -	Da			•	-
27. Of him	•			Dó-u			•	\cdot	Du-ka	•	•	•	-	Do-u	•			
28. His .	,	•		Dó-u		•	•	\cdot	Du-ka	•		•	\cdot	Do-u		•		٠
29. They .		•	•	Dősung (plural	(du	al);	dó-go	on	Du-ga	•	•	•		Do-re	•	•	•	
30. Of them	•	•		Dốsung-r		ó-gon-u		\cdot	Du-gan-k	a,	•	• `	•	Do-tu	•	•		
31. Their				Dosung-t	1; d	ó-gon-r	ı		Du-gan-k	8.	•	•	\cdot	Do-tu	•	•		
32. Hand	•	•	•	Gud		•	•		Guḍ	•		•	\cdot	Gur	•	•	•	•
33. Foot .	٠	٠	:	Bang		•	•		Thula (th	high) ; t).	; pile	(shi	n	Kondza	•	•	•	•
34. Nose .	•	•	•	Tákus	•	•	•		Ta.	•	•		$\cdot $	Nyā	•	•	•	•
35. Eye .	•	•	•	Mig		•	•		Mig		•		\cdot	Ţìrā	•	•	•	•
36. Mouth	٠	•	•	Khang	•	•	•		Kakangg		•		\cdot	Ä.	•	•	•	•
37. Tooth	•	•	•	Gar	•	٠	•	·	Gar	•	•			Tshoa	•	•	•	٠
38. Ear .	•	•	٠	Kánang	•	•	•	\cdot	Rhod .	•	•	•	\cdot	Rețā	•	•	•	•
39, Hair .	٠	٠	•	Krā		•	•	٠	Kra	•	•	•	\cdot	Krā	•	•	•	,
40. Head .	•	•	•	Bal	•	•	•		Bal	٠.	•	•		Pundza	•	•	•	•
41. Tongue	•	•	•	Lē	•	•	٠	•	Le .	•	•	•		Le	•	•	•	•
42. Belly	•	•	•	Péțing	•	•	•	•	Shon	•	•	•		Khog	•	•	•	•
43. Back .	•	•	•	Pishting		•	•	•	Pishting	•	•	•	•	Thākhā	•	•	•	•
44. Iron ,	•	•	•	Ron	•	•	•	•	Ron	•	•	•	•	Nilām	•	•	•	•
45. Gold .	•	•	•	Zang	•	•	•	٠	Zāngg	•	•	•		Zang	•	•	•	•
46. Silver	•	•	•	Mal ·	•	•	•		Mal	•	•	•		Mul	•	•	•	•
47. Father	•	•	•	Bốā; bố	wā ;	bốbă		٠,	-Bā	•	•	•	•	Bā.	•			
48. Mother	•	•		Ámā	•	•	•	•	Yā.	•	•	•	•	Yā	•	•	•	•
49. Brother	•	•		Åtē (eld	lor)	; baís (youn	ger)	Bāu (young	(elder er.)	·);	bhoi	/ts	Kākā (e	lder);	nos (young	70T)
50. Sister	•	•		Dau (young	(el ger).	der);	'n	ngs	Ringz	•	•	•	•	Rhing	•	•	•	
51. Man .	•	•		Mi	•	•	•	•	M gshar	ng	•	•	•	Mi	•	•	•	
52. Woman	٠	٠		• Tsésmi	•	•	•	•	Betri	•	•			Me-tsi-	mi	•	•	

-		Char	nba Lä	hujî.			Bund-	(T-1		
				-		-	Bunán	· (Lai	.a.).	
	Du .	•	•	•	•	Tal .	• .			
	.Dō, ē	no.	•	•		Tal-gy	ri, tai		•	
	.Dō, ē	nō.	•	•		Ta-i, .	tal-gyi			
	Dor	•	•	•	•	Tal-zh	i, tal-j	ji (ta	l- <u>ts</u> or	e)
	Dodu	• ·		•		Tal-zh	i-i			
	Dōdu	•		•	•	Tal-zh	i-i; th	e-zhi	-i .	
-	Gur	•	•			Lag .	• •	• .	,	
	Kunz	•	•	•	•	.Bang		• -		
	Īã.	•	• •	•		Gyum	•	•	•	
	Ţīr .		•	•	•	.Mig .	•			
-	À .			•	•	.Ag .	• •		•	
	<u>Ts</u> huā		•	•	•	Soa	• ·	• ·		
1	Riŗ	• •		•		Rê <u>ts</u> i.	• •			
	Krā.	•	•	•		Kra	•			
l	Punz	•	•	•		.Pusha	•	•		
	Lhē			•	•	.Le	•	• •		
	Khog,	khop		•		Dan .	• •	•	•	
3	ľhākh			•	•	.Gyab	•		u	
1	Nīlām	•	•	•		Chaks	•		•	
		••	• • • • •	•		Ser	• •			
		•••	•••			Mul	•		c	
ŀ	Ba	•	•	•		Awa		•	•	
Y	Tā.	•	•	•	-	Ama		•	•	
Б	Tag (el	der) ;	nuā (yo u nge	7)	A-chho (young	(e (er),	lder));	bed
F	th ť	•	•	•		Shring	•			
G	āhn ā ,	mî	•		$\cdot $	Mi	•	•	•	
y	lēzmī	•	•	•	$\cdot $	Las-mi			•	
L	VOL	ui,	PART	r.		-	Wp		3 z	

Ran	gkas (Almor	s).		Dārmi	iyā (Almors	ı).
Hvē; u-	8	•	•	• ;	Vσ .	•	
Hvēdu-g	:	•	•	•	Ū-gā .	•	• •
Hvēdu-g	5		•	•	Ū-gũ .	•	
Usi	•		•	•	Usī .	•	
Usi-ki		•	•	•	Usi-g; rsī	-gü	• .
Hvē-chā	-g	•	•	•	Usi-g; usi	gů .	
Lā	•	•	•	•	Lā.	٠	
Likē	•		•		Laki .	•	
Him	•	•	•		Nim .	•	
Mi	•	•	•	•	мё .	•	
Ā.		•	•	•	Ā.	•	
Śu	•	•	•	•	·Sō .	•	
Rach	•	•	•	•	Rachō .	•	•
Puchhar	n	•	•	•	Chham	•	• .
Pusē	•	•	•	•	Pisyā .	•	
Jibē	•	•	•	•	Jivai .	•	• .
 pan	•	•	•	•	Dan .	•	
Lung	•	•	•	•	Lungg .	•	
Chyang		. •	•	•	Nijang .	•	
Jž	•	•	•		Jäng .	•	
Mul	•	•	•	•	Mul .	•	
Bā	•	•	•	•	Bā .	•	
Min	•	•	•	•	Minā .		• .
Pi-khan	•	•	•	•	Pē .	•	
Rangsyā	i	•	٠	•	Rangsyā		
Mi	•	•	•	•	Mī .	•	
Bachhai		•	•	•	Büchāk el	ısmē	

Cha	ndān	gai (Almo	ra).		Вуі	ingsi	(Almor	a).	i	Janggalī (Almor	a).		English.
Ati ; ū			•	•	-	Vaii	•	•	•		Nã .	•	•		26. He.
U-g	•		•		•	U-g	•	•	•		Nă khāni māl	pitā	•		27. Of him.
U-g	•		•	•		U-g		•	•		Aii khāni pitā	•	•		28. His.
Usi	•		•	•	•	Ū, usī	•	•	•	\cdot	Pakhō .	•	•		29. They.
Usi-g	•			•	•	Usi-g	•	•	•	\cdot	Ai pitā bahū p	itā	•		30. Of them.
Usi-g	•		•	•		Usi-g		•	•		Guḍhō pitā	•	•	•	31. Their.
Lā	•		•		•	Lā	•	•	•		Hakai .	•	•	•	32. Hand.
Laki	•		•	•	•	Liki	•	•	•	٠	Bhā .	•	•	-	33. Foot.
Him	•		•	•	•	Nim		•	•	•	Sinā .	•	•	•	34. Nose.
Мã	•		•	•	•	Měg	•	•	•	•	Mikai ,	•	•	•	35. Eye.
Humë	•		•	•	•	À.	•	•	•	•	Păg .	•	•	•	36. Mouth.
Sū	•		•	•	•	St	•	•	•	•	Svä .	•	•	•	37. Tooth.
Rach	•		•	•	•	Rach	•	•	•	•	Tună .	•	•	•	38. Ear.
Chhan	١.		•	•	•	Chham	•	•	•	•	Sāu .	•	•	•	39. Hair.
Pisyā	•		•	•	•	Pisyā	•	•	•	•	Jūrā .	•	•	•	40. Head.
Jablī	•		•	•	•	Jablē	•	•	•	٠	Jibaurau	•	•	•	41. Tongue.
Dan	•		•	•	•	Dan	•	•	•	•	Güdang .	•	•	•	42. Belly.
Lung	•		•	•	•	Lung	•	•	•	•	Puţţhi .	•	•	•	43. Back.
Najān	g ·	ı	٠	•	•	Najāg	•	•	٠	•	Lõhā .	•	•		. 44. Iron.
Jäng	•	Ì	•	•	•	Jäng	•	•	•	•	Stina .	•	•	•	45. Gold.
Mul	•	1	•	•	•	Mul	•	•	•	•	Ruppō .	•	•	•	46. Silver.
Bā		•	•	•	•	Bā	•	•	•	•	Bābā .	•	•	•	47. Father.
Mīnā	•	i.	•	٥	i		•	•	•	•		•	•		4S. Mother.
Pi		•	•	•		Pi	•	•	•	•	Bhauva .	•	•	٠	49. Brother.
Range	yā.		•	•	•	Rangsy	ā	•	•	•	Bhainyā	•	•	•	
Mi	•	•	•	•	•	Mī	•	•	٠	-		•		•	
Minā-	sirī		٠.		•	Minang	sirī	•	•		Hvē-kā mitō	•	•		52. Woman.

Eir	nglish.			Kanāw ^a rī (Bashahr).	Kanāshī,	Mänchäti (Lahul).
53. Wife .	•	•		Gốnë; nār	Chhets	. Me-tea
54. Child	•	•		Chang	Chhanga	Katu
55. Son .	•	•		Chang; dekrāts chang .	Chho	Yo
56. Daughter	•	•		Chimed	Chime	Мео
57. Slave	•	•	•	Bándo	Thint	***************************************
8. Cultivator	•	•	•	Zámindār	Zemindar	Zamindar
9. Shepherd	•	•	•	Pálas	Pålang	Poāl*
0. God .	•	•	•	Parmésharas ; Bagán .	Bhagwān	. Maharāj, parmesīr
il. Devil .	•	•		Shaitan	Bhutang	Dud
2. Sun .	•	•	-	Yunck'	Dupe	. Eke
3. Moon	• .	•	•	Golsáng	Joshta	. Latsang
4. Star	•	•		Kar; skar	Kāraga	. Kar
5. Fire .	•	•	•	м	Mī	. Ме
6. Water	•	·		Ti	Ti.,	. Ti
7. House	•	•		Khim	Kim	. Chum
8. Horse	•	•	•	Rang	Rhang	Rang
9. Cow .	•	•	1	Lang	Iuj ,	Goana
O. Dog .	•	•		Khúi		Khuï
l. Cat .	•	•	1		Burāri	Bhil
2. Cock . 3. Duck	•	•		1	ukurang	Kuk ^u ri
	•	•			bi ,	Lhangpa
t. Ass .	•	•			adha	Kārā
6. Bird .	•	•			ņţ	Uth
7. Go .	. ′	•		nt.	sarīts	Prya
3. Eat	•				angt	Ila
. Sit .					au	Za-u
				toshiny (respectful plural).	ish	То

	Chamba Läh	ųī.		Bunán (Lahul).
.Mez .		•		Beyan-mo (byan-mo)
	*			Tsitsi.
.Yō	• • • •			Bu- <u>ts</u> ha
Milys				Tsemed .
	A	-		Goyal
	******			Rig-dang zai-pa
				Roag-tgi
	A- 104			Kon-chog
	*****			Dnd
Yegi	• ' • '	•	•	Nyi- <u>ts</u> i
Lazā.	•••	•	•	La
·Karh•	• • • •	•	•	Kar-ma
	A			Ме
·Ti	• •	•	•	Soti
Chumh		•		Kyum
Rha		•		Shrangs
Bahd	• • •	•	•	Hambu
Khūi		•		Khyu
Bhir -				Bi-la
Kugi	• • •			Kukri
	ego 244			Ngang-pa
Kār	• • • •			Kāra
σŗ		•		Uthu
Pyā				P ^e a, pya
lbi				El-a ,
Zē				Za
Bhraï				Zhora
			1	

Rai	.).	I)ār	Dārmiy š (Almora).						
Bachhail			•		Bānd	•	•	•	•
Syan-cha	n n		•		Sönchan		•		•
Śēri	• •				Sirī	•	•	•	
Chimi	•		•		Chama	•	•	•	-
Pangr	•	•	•		1)hangmi	ţ		•	
Rai-sun			•		Vo-lan	•	•	•	
Gvāl	•	•	•		Anvāl	•	•		
Pramaiol	hur	•	•	•	l'aimesar	•	•	•	٠
Bhut-pic	häs		•		Sinā	•		•	
Surj ; nl	•				NI	•		•	
Lhā	•	•	•		Lhā	•	• .	•	-
Täx			•	112	Lukar	•		•	
Mā		•			Mo	•		•	
Ti.					Ti	•	•		
Chyam		•	•		Chim		•	•	
Rhã	•	•	•		Räng	•	•		
Rai	•		•	•	Bainā	•	•	•	
Khvi	•	•	•		Khī	•	•	•	
Bila	•				Bila	•			•
Sichar			•		l'yā	•	•	•	
Hadig		•	•		Nga-pya		•	•	
Gadā	•	•	•		Lungja			•	
Hűţ	•	•	•		Üţū	•		•	
Pyů	•	•	•		Si-pya	•		•	
Dis; dī;	; diśi ;	diśēn	; dādi	i.	Dě; dï-s	ā ; di-	si-na-i	lā.	
Jām; jū	; jadi	; jasar	a ; jaš	ila	Jū; jū-m	i; jā-∉	i-na-li	3	•
Chilmi; chilais	ch an; c	ilë ; hilësal	chile lá; ch	ĸl; ilī,	Syöngk syöngl	Him ; cein-(slā).	ongka	1;

Chaudāngsī	(Almor	æ).	Ì	Byā	agsī (A	lmora).			Janggalī (A	lmora)	•	English.
Bãd .	•	•	1	Jamin		•	•	•	Mã .	,		53. Wife.
Bālu-sēnd		•	\cdot	Sēnai				-	Paigārō .			54. Child.
Siri .	•	•		Shī		•			Hvē-kā payō			55. Son.
Cha-më .				Chamē		•	•		Hvē tarō	•		56. Daughter.
Dhāng-mī	•		•	Ņāng-mi			•		Hvē gulāmā hir	nānī		57. Slave.
Jimdār .		•		Jimdār			•	٠	Khēti-laūdā	•		58. Cultivator.
Anvāl .		•		Aṇvâl	•				Guālyā .	•		59. Shepherd.
Parmēsarai		•		Parmaiss	r	•	•		Bhagvān	•		60. God.
Sinā .		•		Sinā		•	•	•	Pitaudi .		•	61. Devil.
Ni .	•	•		Nī	•		•	•	Diākhā .	•	•	62. Sun.
Lhā .	•			Lha	•	•		•	Pipar kösi	•	•	63. Moon.
Lhā-kar	•	•		Karmā	•		٠.		Tārā .		•	. 64. Star.
Mai .	•	•		Mě	•		•		Mai ,		•	. 65. Fire.
Tī .	•	•		Tī.	•	•	•	•	Ti .		•	. 66. Water.
Chim .	•	•	٠	Chim	•	•		•	N (sio) .	•	•	. 67. House.
Rāng .	•	•	•	Rång	•	•	•		Ghorya .	•	•	. 68. Horse.
Sirai .	•	•		Rai	•	•	•		Pīgo .	•	•	. 69. Cow.
Nau-khvi	•	•	•	Nikhī	•	•	•		Kui .	•		. 70. Dog.
Bilā .	•	•	•	Bila	•		•	•	Bīrālī .	•	•	. 71. Cat.
Nаруа .	٠	•	•	Nipai	•	•	•		Bvā .	•	•	. 72. Cock.
Ngangbi	•	•		Ngangb	ā.	•	•		Aulyā .	•	•	. 73. Duck.
Böngch .	•	•		Böngch	ai	•	•		Gadahā .	•	•	. 74. Ass.
Ŭţ.	•	•		Ūţ	•	•			Ŭţā .	•	•	. 75. Camel.
Chipach .	•	•	•	Chipach	• ;	•	(p	٠	Bbā .	•	•	76. Bird.
Dē; dē-gan deyē.	ē; dē	-ganê-l	ă;	Dī; dīg	aye;	dīgulā	;_dīyē		Raigvāi .	•	•	. 77. Go.
Jā ; jāgnē ; j	āgnalā	; jágyz	٠.	Jā; jāgs	yō; ji	igulā	•	•	Jāir .	•	•	. 78. Eat.
Syčkasim; syčgsaye;	syčgsi	yõgasii nalä.	n;	Syöngks syöng	sin; ksiglā	syön i.	gksiy	ě:	Svai .	•	•	. 79. Sit.

English.			Kanāw ^e ri (Bashahr)	Kanāshī.					. Manchāțī (Lahul).					
80. Come .			Járā;.jach; jany .	•	Zhar .	• •	•	•	· Āt	ā.	• ,	• .	•	
81. Beat .	•	•	Tong; tongch; tongch	y .	Tou .	• •		•	. Te	ng-n	• .	•		
82. Stand .	•		Dényü ; dénich ; déni	ny .	Kharas a	ch			. At	Tu.				
83. Die	•		Shī; shīch; shīny .		Shig				. Si-	n.	• .		•	
84. Give .	•		Ran; ranch; rany; kōch; kēny.	kyō;	Kāz-mor	; kāz	-ratai	ıg; rāţ	. Rã	-u			•	
85. Run ,	•	•	Tűrat ; türách ; türán	y .	Thoratan	g	• .	•	. Dr	o-rãu				
86. Up	•	•	Tóā	•	Rigin.	•		•	. To-	ring	•			
87. Near .	•	•	Nfrangs		Nerang	•		•	Tss	ım-be	•		•	
88. Down .	•	•	Yő-ā.		Yen; yo	•	•	•	. You	ng				
89. Far	•	•	Vark		Dur	• .		•	. Oï	•			•,	
90. Before .	•	•	Oms; ómskō	•	Āgrang;	mand	lris		. Tui	i, kach	ang	•		
91. Behind .	•	•	Nyums; nyúms-kō .		Hipich	•	• •	•	. Tha	ıl-e)			
92. Who .	•		Hat		Hāte .	• •	•		. A-r	i.,			•	
93. What .	•	•	T*t	•	Chhuge	•	-	• •	. Chi	ıi .				
94. Why .	•	•	Tū	•	Kwe.	:	•	•	. Chh	a-ring		•		
95. And ,	•	•	Ai	•	Hed	,		• .	. Vi,	o .		•		
96. But	•	-	*** ***		Neh māi .		•	• .	Shu	-che-la			•	
97. If	•	٠	-mā (added to the bas the verb, etc.).	e of	Akhar .		•		Kits	, saita		•	•	
98. Yes	•		X ,		Há .	•	•		Hvo	i.		•	•	
9. No	•	•	Ma·nī . , .	-	Māi	•			Ma s	shut'	•	٠,	•	
00. Alas .	•		Haiā; apó; amá.yō		Hai hai .	•	,		Hai	hai .	•	,		
l. A father .	•		Bốbā	-	Bā				I bā	•	•		•	•
2. Of a father	•	•	Bốbế-u	-	Bā-ka .		•		I bā-	u.	•		•	,
3. To a father	•		Bốbấ-ũ		Bā-uj .	•	•	•	I bā-	bi.	•		•	
4. From a father	•		Bốbā dagts; bō-bấ-ũ da	gts .	Bā-dits .	•	•	•	I bā-	u dor- <u>i</u>	gi.	ı	•	•
5. Two fathers	•	. !	Nish bốbā; nish bobấn	. :	Nyialı bā-ga	a.		•	Juț l	oā .	•	,	•	•
6. Fathers	•		Bốbẩn	•	Bā-ga .		٠,	•	Bā-a-	re .	•		,	•

C	hamba	Lähuļ	ī.		Bunín (Lahul).
Ābi		•	•		Rs
Tēzi	•				Khye-ra
Khaya s	hubi	•			Shan-shi.
Si .		•	•		Shi-chi
Randi	•		•		Da-u
Drō-rap	ļ ī		•	•	Grel-a
Tori					Yo-rog, yartog
<u>Ts</u> ambi					Ka-chang
	••••	••			Meong
Öhetar	•				Wa-i
Tīri		•	•	•	Du-chi-mang
Thalär	•	•	•		Kho-chi-mang
Ārī					Su
Chhi	•	•		•	Kha
Chhārī	•	•			Kha-lak'
	. •••	•••			-dang, -e
Azla		•	•		Yen-nang
	•••	•••			-nang
Ōĕ	•	•			Wa
Ma		•			Men
	44 €	•••			Hai hai
Ba		•	•		Awsti-ki
Bão		•	•		Awati-kizi
Bābi	•		•		Awa ti-ki rog
Bāō do <u>is</u>		•	ŧ	•	Awa ti-kog-chi
Jur bë	•	•			Nyis-pi awa
	****].	Awa-zhi, awa-ji 📜 .
					W. P. L. 545

Rangkas (Almora)-	Dārmiyā (Almora).	
Rãch; būni; rãśiś kalitāti; raśi; ō.	; rām-	Rā-mō ; yō ; rā ; rā-sī ; nalā.	rã-si
Saĭm; saitat; sair tatat; sētīn; sēti;	n-kalai- sā.	Sai-mō; sayā; sai-tī; ta nalā.	sai-
Naim; nyā; nēs; nēsnalā; rhīchā.	nēśan ;	Rachi-mō; rachan; rach rachasanalā.	iasi
Sichm; sichan(u); s than-chisan; sichi	ich-śan ; s.	Hicham; hīchan; hich hichansalā.	asī
Dām; dā; da-tan kalai-tatan; datī;	; dān- lā.	Dā-m ; dā ; dā-tī ; dā-ta	nalā
Śēm; sēnī; śyām-k si-ras; syāsi; śyā.	al-tāti ;	Gyū-m; gyū-ā; gyō gyō-sinalā.	-sī;
Thu-śyū .		Yarto	
Nenm	• •	Nēnam	
Yu-syū		Pa-chyāng	
Hvānm		Vānam	
Gān-śyū .		Tukatu	
Hyang-śyū .	•	Nokaņdī	
Khami		Khami	
Kyā; kha .		Kha-li, kha	
Kha-lai .		Kha-li-tan	
Gār · . · .		Gängr	
Hã		Parantu	
Jai		Gam-luk-chē-rī .	
Ah		A	
Mha	• •	Ma-hã	
Khālikach .		На́у	
-Khamī bā;-tā bā		Khamī bā ; tākō bā .	
Khamir bā-g		Khamī bā-g	
Khamir bā-g hvēr		Tākō bā-dāngs	
Tā bā chubã		Tā bā khar-chā .	
Niśi bā-ś .		Nisi bi	
Bā titi; mhan bā; b	a-chan-á	Bā tittī; dalē bā; bā-	char

Chaudăngsī (Almora).	Byāngsī (Almorá).	Janggalī (Almora).	English.
Rā ; rāyē ; rāgē ; rānalā	Rā ; rāgayē ; rāgulā .	Lau	80. Come.
Sai; sai; saitō; saitanlā	Samō; saū; satō; satnalā.	Hatai	81. Beat.
Yam-m; yabay; yabkhayē; yabnalā.	Yabyō; yabkhayē; yabkha- nalā.	Phyani	82. Stand.
Sī-chyam; si-chē-nī; si- chiyē; sichinalā.	Sichi-mō; sichan; sichiyē; sichignalā.	Vo-si-yo	83. Die.
Dā; dā-tanē; dā-tnalā; da-tō.	Dā-mō ; dā ; dā-tō ; dā-tanalā	Vai	84. Give.
Jhyāng-am; jhyāgayō; jhyāgayē; jhyāngalā; jhyāngay.		Thaukai	85. Run.
Yar-to	Yar-tō	Thath raigvai	.86. Up.
Nënam	Nēro ; tito	Laga	87. Near.
Chhyãkữ	Yū-khữ	Dhi	88. Down.
Vān-am	Vānam	Läkā	89. Far.
Larē	Larai	Jnyāntānē	90. Before.
Ing-kō-ti	Nim-phan	Chuțătălar	.91. Behind.
Kha-mi	Kha-mi; unā	Sungimai	.92. Who.
Khai	Khai; khalitāri	Hāu	93. What.
Kha-chār	Kha-chārai	Su-hī	94. Why.
Gāngr	Hāng	Dhauji jōrō	95. And.
Parantu	Lēkin	Hvē kāpharā	.96. But.
Agar	Agar	Sunō-hi	97. If.
Hāng	Hã; ã	Pai	98. Yes.
Mãd	Ma-li	Ahã	99. No.
Hāy	Hāy	Suchchair	100. Alas.
Udī bā; tig bā	Khamī bā; tig bā	Dūg īyā	101. A father.
Udī bā-g	Khami bā-g	Hvē-kā bābā	102. Of a father.
Udī bā-mag; udī bā-jā .	Khamī bā·jā	Hvē-kā bābā; hvē-kā bāp; hvē-kā bābau.	103. To a father.
Udī bā-jā-khar-chī	Khamî bā-sē ; tig bā-s		104. From a father.
Nisi bā	Nisī bā, nisī bāgāngs .	Nī bābā	105. Two fathers.
Bā titi; mat bā ; bā-māng .	Bā tittī; mat bā; bā-māng	Bāb kubbā	106. Fathers.

English.	Kanāw ^a rī (Bashahr).	Kanāshī,	Manchāți (Lahn
107. Of fathers	Bobān-u	Bá-gan-ka	Bă-a-tu .
108. To fathers	Bōbān-ā	Bā-ga-uj	Bā-a-ting .
09. From fathers	Bōbấn(-ũ) dagts	Bā-ka-dits	Bā-atu dor- <u>ts</u> i .
110. A daughter	Chimed	Chime; chimets	I meo
111. Of a daughter	Chimed-u	Chime-ka	I meo-u
12. To a daughter	Chimed-ti	Chime-uj	I meo-bi
113. From a daughter .	Chimed (-t) dagts	Chime-dits	I meo dor-tsi .
114. Two daughters	Nish chimed; nish chimed- ón.	Nyish.chime	Jut meo
115. Daughters	Chīmed-ón	Chime	Meo-re
116. Of daughters	Chimed-ón-u	Chime-gan-ka	Meo-tu
117. To daughters	Chimed-on-u	Chime-goj	Meo-ting .
118. From daughters	Chimed-on(-u) dagts .	Chime-gan dits	Meo-tu dor-tsi .
119. A good man	Dam mī . ,	Chandits marshang	Iruțhe mi .
120. Of a good man	Dam mf-u	Chandits marshang-ka .	I ruțhe mi-u .
121. To a good man .	Dam mí-ū	Chandits marshang-uj .	I ruțhe mi-bi .
122. From a good man	Dam mf(-û) dagts	Chandits marshang-s .	I ruthe mi-u dor-i
123. Two good men .	Nish dam mi(-n)	Nyish chanditso marshang	Jut ruthe mi-re
124. Good men	Dam min	Chanditso marshanga .	Ruthe mi-re .
125. Of good men .	Dam min-u	Chanditso marshang-ka	Ruthe mi-tu .
126. To good men .	Dam mfn-ü	Chanditso marshang-goj	Ruthe mi-ting
127. From good men .	Dam min(-u) dagts .	Chanditso marshang-gan	Ruthe mi-tu dor-te
128. A good woman	Dam tsésmi	Shobil betşi	I ruthe metsimi
129. A bad boy .	Mar chang	Mara chho	I mazhi yo
180. Good women .	Dam tsesmin	Shum shobile betri-ga	Ruthe metsimi-re
131. A bad girl .	Mar tsētsāds	. Nark chime	I māzhi metsimi k
132. Good	Dam	. Chandi; shobil	Ruths
133. Better	Jigpō	-dits shobil	Du be rathe

Chamba Lähuli.	Bunán (Lahul).
*****	Awa <u>ts</u> orei, awa-jii
*** ,44	Awa-zhog
*****	Awa-zhog-chi
Mil-yō	Tsemed ti-ki
Mil-yō	Tsemed ti-kii
Mîl-yō-vi; mîl-yō-bi	Tsemed tikog
Mīl-yō do <u>ts</u>	Tsemed tikog-chi
Jur mil-yō	Tsemed nyis-kying
Mil-yor	Tsemed tsore, tsemed-shi .
Mīl-yō-du	<u>Ts</u> emed-shii
Mīl-yō-dī	Tsemed-shog
Mīl-yō-du do <u>is</u>	Tsemed-shog-chi
Ruth mi	Mizâiti-ki
	Mi zăi ti-ki-i
******	Mi zăi ti-kog
40	Mí zãi ti-kog-chi
481.014	Mi zãi nyis-pi
	Mi zăi-ji
*****	Mi zăi-jii
100000	Mi zăi-zhog
D_11	Mi zăi zhog-chi
Ruth mēzmi	
	Butsha marei ti-ki
Madam milyō	Tsemed zăi-zhi Tsemed marei ti-ki
D-AL	
	Thazn basta zăi
-ve ruin	W. P. L549

Rangkas (Almora).	Dārmiyā (Almora).
Bā titi-k; bā-chā-g	Bā-chan-gō
Ba tigi (sic)	Bā-chan-ḍabaru
Bā titi baṭī	Bā-chan kharchū
Khamir chami (chamē) .	Khami cha-më
Khamir chami-k	Khami cha-mē-g
Tā chami-chubă	Khami cha-mē-g dāngsū .
Khamir chami batī	Khami cha-mê kharchū .
Nisi chami-k (sic)	Ņīsī cha-mē;chan
Mhan chami; chami-chan-s	Cha-mē-chan
Chami-chū-k	Cha-mē-chan-ag
Chami-chā-lē k h	Cha-mē-chan-nibāng .
Chami-chã-r (sic)	Cha-mē-chan khar-chū .
Jhyān mī	Khami jain mi
Khamir jhyän mi-g	Khamiain mi-g
Khamir jhyān mi-chāg; tā jhyān mi-g lēkh.	Khamī jain mī-g dāng .
Khamir jhyān mi-chār .	Khami jain mi kharchi .
Nisi jhyan mi	Nisi jain mi .
Mhan jhyān mi ; jhyān mi- chan-s.	Jain mi-chan
Jhyān mi-jā-g	Jain mī-chan-ag
Jhyān, mī-chan	Jain mī-chan-gū nībāng .
Jhyān, mi-chā-r	Jain mī-chan kharchū .
Khamir jhyän bachhai .	Gabū jain buchyāk cha-mē
Khamir yān nyāpan .	Gabū yān sirī
Jhyain bachhai-chãn .	Jain buchyāk chamē-chan .
Yān chamī	Yān cha-mē
Jhyan; jhyain .	Jain
Mhan jhyān; gấr jhyain .	U-chyảng jain; la-chyảng jain; áchhō jain.

Chaudāngšī (Almora).	Byāngsī (Almora).	Janggali (Almora).	English.
Bā-māng-g	Bā-māng-g	Bāb bubbau	107. Of fathers.
Bā-māng-jā	Bā-māng-jā	Bāb bubbau, bāp bubbau pitā.	108. To fathers.
Bā-jā-khar-chī	Bā-māng-sai	Bāb bubbē	109. From fathers.
Udī cha-mē	Unān chamē	Khuṭiyā garau	110. A daughter.
Udī cha-mē-g	Khamīn chamē-mag; tig chamē-g.	Su garau-hī	111. Of a daughter.
Udī cha-mē-māg, cha-mē-jā	Tig chamē-jā	Su garō; su garō pitā .	112. To a daughter.
Udī cha-mē-jā-khar-chī .	Tig chamë-sai	Sugarõ	113. From a daughter.
Nisī cha-mē	Nisî chamë	Ni garau	114. Two daughters.
Cha-mē-māng	Chame-mang	Garau	115. Daughters.
Cha-mê-mang-g	Chamë-mang-g	Gãrã-kā	116. Of danghters.
-Cha-mē-māng-jā	Chamē-māng-jā	Gără-kā-pitā	117. To daughters.
Cha-mē-māng-s	Chamē-māng-sai	Garã-chihi	118. From daughters.
Udī bud mī	Unan bud mi	Hvēī nikō mansā	119. A good man.
Udi bud mi-g	Unan bud mi-g	Süg nikō mansā	120. Of,a good man.
Udī bud mī-jā	Unān bud mī-jā	Süg nikai mansā	121. To a good man.
Udī bud mī-jā-khar-chī .	Unău-bud mi-sai	Süg nikê mansê	122. From a good man.
Nis bad mi	Nisî bud mî	·Ni nikō mansā	123. Two good men.
Bud-mi-māng	Bud mi-mang	Nikē mansā	124. Good men.
Bud mi-mäng-g	Bud mi-mäng-g	Nîkê mansō	125. Of good men.
Bud mī-māng-jā	Bud mi-māng-jā	Nikē mansau	126. To good men.
Bud mi-mäng-s	Bud mi-māng-sai	Nikō mansā	r27. From good men.
Udī bud minā(ng)sirī .	Unān bud mi-nāng-sirī .	Hōī nikō mitā	128. A good woman.
Udī yād sēnd	Unan yad siri	Hơi hār payā	129. A bad boy.
Bud minâng-sirī-māng	Bud mi-näng-sirī-mäng .	Nikō mitā	130. Good women.
Yād cha-mē	Yad chamē	Hayrā garau	131. A bad girl.
Bud	Bud	Niko	132. Good.
Achchhaieud; asal bud	U-chyang domā bud; ai- chyang-ri bud; achchho bud	Jhīk nikō	133. Better.

English.			Kanāw ^a rī (Bashahr).		Kanāshī.		Manchāţī (Lahu	1).
134. Best •	•		ľsén-u jígpo . •	-	Sabka-dits shobil		Bate be ruthe .	•
135. High •		. 1	Rângk . • •		Uthras		Ranggi	
136. Higher .	•	. :	Bodi rängk	\cdot	-ka-dits uthras.		Du-be ranggi	
137. Highest .	•	$\cdot $	Tsốn-ti rằngk		Sabkan-nits uthras		Bate be ranggi.	
138. A horse .	•	\cdot	Rang; kyō-ráng (# horse).	rale	Rång		I rhang	• .
139. A mare .	•		Mánț-rang ; gón-mā	•	Mich rang .		I nabran .	
140. Horses .	•		Ráng-on	•	Rang-ga	• •	Rhang-dze .	
141. Mares .	ŧ.		Mánt-rang-on; gón-mā	л.	Shum mich-rang		Nabran-de, -re	• •
142. A bull .	•	•	Dámas	•	Rhād; shokras		I bang-ḍa .	• •
143. A cow .	•	•	Lang	•	Huj		I goan	• •
144. Bulls .	•	•	Dámas-on; dáman .	•	Rhad		Bang-da-re .	- •
145. Cows .	•	•	Láng-on	•	Shum huja .		Gоаџ ^а -ге, доаџе-ге	•
146. A dog .	•	•	Kái; kyō-kái .	•	I kui	•	I khui	• •
147. A bitch .	•	•	Manţ-ktî	•	Mich kuti .	•	I mingaņa khui, khui.	mingara
148. Dogs .	•	•	Kūf-n	•	Kui	•	. Khui-re	• •
149. Bitches .	•	•	Mant-kül-n	•	Kutiga	•	Mingan khui-re	• •
150. A he goat	•	•	Ásh; āj.	•	Bokras	•	. I ri <u>ts</u> a	• •
151. A female go	at .	•	Bakór	•	Bokar	•	. 115	• •
152. Goats .	•	•	Āsh-on bákor-on	•	Bokra; bokare (fe	em.)	. Chhākṛa-re	• •
153. A male deen		•	Kyó-po; kyó-sar .				I chin	• •
154. A female de	er .	•	Mánt-pō; mánt-sar .				I mingapa chin	• •
155. Deer .	•	•	. Pō; sar	٠	•		Dan	• •
156. I am	•		. Ga to-g		. Gu totkek	•	Gye shu-ga	
157. Thou art	•		. Ka to-n; ki tony	•	Ko to-n	•	. Kā shu-na	
158. He is	• •		Do to; do tosh	, -	Nu to	•	Du shu-t'	•
159. We are	• •		káshang, kíshang to			•	Ngye-re shu-ni	•
160. You are	•		. Kishī, kinān, toch (to	ny)	. Ki tong .	•	. Kye-re shu-ni .	•

	Char	mba Laht	Ųî.		Bunáu (Lahul).			
					Tso-rog-chi zãi			
Ranggi		•			. Tho-ī			
-vē ran	ggi				. Thazu basta thoï			
		•••••			Tso-rog-chi thoï			
<u>Ts</u> hāh		•	•		. Shrangs tii			
Nabrhã		•			Godma tii			
		•••••	-		Shrangs tshãi			
		*** ***			Godma tshãi			
Bang	•		•	٠ م	Lang-tsi tii			
Rahd			•		Hambu tii			
		*** ***			Lang-tsi-zhi			
		******			Hambu-zhi			
Bà			•	•	Khya tii			
Mē		•	•		Mo khyu tii			
		*** ***			Khyu-zhi			
		•••			Mo-khyu-zhi			
Rhiz			•	•	Kyud tiì			
Lā	•		•		Latii			
		*****			La-zhi, la-ji			
					Sha-wa tii			
		***			Sha-mo tii			
		*** ***			Sha-wa			
Shu-k	•	•			Gyi yen-gya			
Shu-n	•	•	•		Han yen-na			
Shu-d; s	hu	•	•		Tal yen			
Shunni	•	•	•		Hing-zhi yen-ni			
Shunni	•		•		Han-zhi yen-ni			
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Bhungnyā	ir-chyāng aisin . ,
Mhan bhungnyā; gār bhu-Ugnu. Tuk hvē pūn	-chyāng aisin ir-chyāng aisin abū rāng abū mō-rāng āng-chan ō-rāng-chan abū lang abū bainā
Gub rhã	ir-chyāng aisin
Tuk hvē pūn B. Gub rhā G. Gub rhā bhī; tā rha bachhai G. Rhā R. Rhāgī	abū rāng
Gub rhà bhì; tā rha bachhai G Rhà	abū mō-rūng
Rhà Rhàgi Gub là Gub bēn Mhan là-chà	āng-chan
Rhăgi Gub lă Gub bēn Mhan lă-chă	ō-rāng-chan
Gub lå	abū lang
Gub bēn	abū bainā
Mhan là-chã La	ang-chan
Rā-chã	ninā-chan
Gub khvi G	abā khī
Gub chhvār G	abā mō-khi
Khvi-chā K	hi-chan
Chhvār khvi-chž M	5-khi-chan
Gub mal; sar G	abū sir ; tākō ma-lā .
Gub läsü G	abū lā-sāng
Māl Si	r-chan - · ·
Gub harin G	abū phō-phū .· .
Tā barinī G	abă mō-phū
Harin P	hū-chan
Ji sisi Ji	lhē
Ga sisin; ga lhēn G	ailhē
(Hvē lhē) T	ad lhē
Nung na-sisu I	ng lhē
Gan sisin	ainí lhē

Chaudāngsī (Almora).		Byāngsī (Almora)	• 1	Janggali (Almora).	English.
Asal bud	•	Lai chyāng-rī bud		Ait nikō		134. Best.
Angsid		Thaid	• •	Argo .		135. High.
Dōmā angsid ; gāngr ar	gsid	U-chyāng-rī thaid; thaid.	gaur	Jhik argan		136. Higher.
Lachachāng angsid .	•	Lai chyāng-rī thaid		Ait argan		137. Highest.
Udī rāng		Unan rang .		Hvēi ghō r ā	• •	138. A horse.
Udī mā rāng		Unan mō-rang .		Hvaiī gh ōŗi		139. A mare.
Rāng-māng		Rang-mang		Ghōṛē .		140. Horses.
Mō rāng-māng .	•	Mō-rāng-māng.		Ghōriyā .	• •	i41. Mares.
Udi ling	•	Unān lē		Hvēī dīgā		142. A bull.
Udī sirai	•	Unān rai		Hvēi gārē	•	143. A cow.
Ling-mang	•	Lē-māng		Jhik dingā		. 144. Bulls.
Sirai-mäng	•	Rei-mäng		Gãrã · .	•	. 145. Cows
Udi nau-khvi	•	Unān ni-khī .		Hvēī kui		. 146. A dog.
Udi chhāi nau-khvī	•	Unān chhai ni-khi		Hvēi chbauri		, 147. A bitch.
Nau-khvi-mang .	•	Ni-khi-mang .		Kuīyē .		. 148. Dogs
Chhāi nau-khvi-māng	•	Chaii ni-khī-māng		Chhauriyã		. 149. Bitches.
Udi mā-lā	•	Unān sir	•	Hvaii bakvā		. 150. A he geat.
Udī mkā-sāng ; udī lā-s	āng.	Unan lasang .		Hvaiī pāţ		. 151. A female goat.
Mā-lā-māng		Sir-mang .		Bakë .		152. Goats.
Pho	•	Phō	. :	Hirnā	• •	. 153. A male deer.
Mõ phō	•	Mo-pho	• •	Hīrani-		154. A female deer.
Phō-māng	1	Fhō-māng · .		Jhīk hiran		. 155. Deer.
Ji lhē		Ji lhiyè		Nā hi .		, 156. I am.
Gan lhë-n		Gan lhēnō .		Nachī hī		. 157. Thou art.
Volhē		Ulhi		Hàt-kō-hã		. 15S. He is.
In lhë-në		Jīyē lhīyē .		Nā hī .		. 159. We are.
Ganī Ihē-nī		Gayê lhîna		Hvēn-cha-hi	• •	160. You are.

English.			Kanāw ^a rī (Bashshr).	Kanāshī,	Manchāṭī (Lahul).
161. They are .	•	•	Dősung, dógon, tō (tosh) .	Duga tush	Do-re shu-re
162. I was .	•		Gª tốkē-g, tē-g, tots .	Gu totk	Gye to-i-ga
163. Thou wast	•		Ka tốkẽ-c, tên, tots	Ko totkenõ	Ka to-i-na
164. He was .	•		Do toch, tố:kē, tots, tēsh, tốkēsh.	Dui totko	Do to-i
165. We were .	•	•	Níshī (ningān) tökēch, tēch, tots; káshang (kíshang)	Ņī tot-keng	Ngye-re to-i-ni
166. You were .	•	•	tókē, tē, tots. Kíshī (kināņ) tókēch, tēch, tots.	Kî totkeng	Kye-re to-i-ni
167. They were	•		Dősung (dógon) toch, tőkē, tots, etc.	Du-gai tot-ke	Do-re to-i-re
168. Be	•	•	Hach, hachich, hachiny .	Ach ,	
169. To be .	•		Tón-mig; háchī-mig; ní- mig; tōshī-mig.	Hashi-ta	Shu-bi
170. Being .	•	•	Háchis		Şhu-tār shu-tār
171. Having been	•	٠		Ḥashi-ge	Shu-che il-je
172. I may be .	•	٠	G ^a hachids-gēā	Gu degek	Chhaï-nye-u gye shu-ga (perhaps I am).
173. I shall be .	•	٠	Ga hach-og	Gu haşhitak	Gye shu-og
174. I should be	•	٠	Ga háchi-m (gyấ-to)	Gudetak	Gye shubi jüs (I must be) .
175. Beat .	•	•	Tong; tong-ch; tong-sh	Ţo-u ,	Teng-u
176. To beat .	•	•	Tóng-mig; tóng chi-mig; tóng-shi-mig.	То-и	Teng-zi
177. Beating .	•		Tóng-tọng; tóng-chis; tóng-shis.	•••	Teng-za-teng-za
178. Having beaten	•		•••	Toge-kush	Teng-dza, teng-nge
179. I beat .	•	٠	G"-s tóng-ō-to-g	Gu to-gu-tak	Gye teng-dza-tag
180. Thou beatest	•		Ka-s túng-ō-to-n; kis tóng- ō-tony.	Ko to-gu-ta-kű	Kaï teng-dza ta-n
18I. He beats .	•		Do-s túng-ō-to	Du-s tọ-gu-ta-kữ	Doï teng-dzak'
182. We beat .	•	•	Ningán-s tóng-ō-toch ; kíshang-s tongō-tónmē.	Ni to-tang	Ngye-tsi teng-dza ta-ni .
183. You beat ,	•	•	Kinān-s tóng-ō-toch	Ki to-ta-kung	Kyo-tsi tong-dza-ta-ni
184. They beat	•	•	Dogon-s túng-ō-to	Dugash to-ta-kung; or,	Do-tsi teng-dza-to-re.
185. I beat (Past T	ense)	•	Gn-s tong-ig	Gu to-mek	Gyo teng-nga te-g
186. Thou beates	t (Pa	st	Ka-s tóng-in	Ko to-ge-kun	Ka-i teng-nga te-n
187. He beat (Past	Tense)	•	Do-s tóng-ā	Nus toge-kun	Do-i teng-nga tek'
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Chamba Lāhuļī			Bunán (Lahul).
Shūr	•		Tal-zhi yen
Tōig	•		Gyi ni-za
Tōin	•		Han ni-n-za
Toi			Tal ni-za
Tōini	•		Hing-zhi goaiaha
Tōini	•		Han-zhi goan-taha
Toir	•	•	Tal-zhi goan-tsha
•••			Kya-men, ni-men , .
h			Kya-kya, nia-nia
•••••			Kya-zhi
*** ***			Kha-che-ni gyi kya-gyeg (perhaps I shall be).
Shōg	•	•	G y i kya-gyeg
Gi hübi tõig .	•		Gyi kya-re gyun (I must be)
Tēū; tēreni .		•	Khye-ra
Tezi	•	•	Khyed-chum
			Khyed-kya
			Khyed-zhi
Tēzādo, tēzādog	•	•	Gyi-zi khyed-cheg
Tēzādo-g	•		Han-zi khyed-cha-na
Tēzād	•		Tal-zi khyed-cha-re
Tēzādoni			Hing-zhi <u>ts</u> hi khyed-chheg .
Tēzādoni	•		Han-zhi t <u>s</u> hi khyed-chhag-ni
Tězádor .		:	Tal-zhi <u>ts</u> hi khyed-chhag-re
Tenggåde-g .	•		Gyi-zi tib-men-gya
Tenggāde-n .	•		Han-zi tib-za-na
Tenggāde .	•		Tal-zi tib-za
<u></u>			W. P. L557

		•
Rangkas (Almora).		Dārmiyā (Almora).
Us sînî		Usī lhē
Ji sīs		Jī nīsīs
Ga si-nau-s	•	Gai nīsinsū
Hvē sich		Tad nisansū,
Jē siś	-	Ing nīsinsū
Gani śi-nai-ś	-	Ģanī nīsinsti
Us śich		Usī nī-chū
Ah	. :	Lhē
Lhikoh	. 1	Lhē-mo
Lhinpan sing-chyang	.	Lhē-lan
Lhi-nyō	. 1	Lhē-kē
Ji lhēj	.]	i lhu-ka-chū
Ji sis	.]	ī lhēyāngsī
Ji lhē-m ching-ni .	.]	î lhē-ma ching-sî
Sālō	. 8	si-nī
Şālā	. 8	ai-nig
Sai-ninatā	. s	ainlātānī
Sai-nē	. s	ainamü ,
Ji-s sā-tī	.] J	i-8 sai-ti
Ga-s saitnalā	. G	a-s sai-tan
Usi chamak laitat .	. ס	-s sai-tā
Ji-s saitalā	. Iţ	eg sai-tan . , .
Gani śai-tinalā .	. G	ainī sai-tā
Hvē saitkī	U,	eî sai-tā
Ji-s sais	. Ji	-8-па яёуа-в
Ga-s saisātan ,	. G	n-s sē-n-s
Hvéda, s sneait	. U	-khanā sē-s
W D T KEO	- (•

Chaudāngsī	(Alm	ora).		Byångsî	(Almo	ra).		Janggali (Almo	ra).		English.
Usī lhē-nē	•	•		Ulhī .	•	•		Vaihi	,		161. They are.
Jī nīyēs .	•	•		Ji niyēsō.	•	•		Nā-hi		•	162. I was.
Gan niyan-s				Gan lhēnō		•		Namva-kē-hā .			163. Thou wast.
Ū nì-s .	•	•		U nī-sō .		•		Ab-tar-hyã .	•		164. He was.
In ninhēs	•			Ji-lai niyēsō	•	•		Hvai-kō-hā .			165. We were.
Gani ninhēs	•	•		Gani lai nī-ni-	·sõ	•		Namva-kō-hā .		٠	166. You were.
Usî ninhês	•	•		U nī-sō .	•	•		Hvai-kō-hā .			167. They were.
.Lhē .	•	•		Lhi .		•		Kāhirī	•		·168. Be.
Lhē-nī	•	•	•	Lhi-mō .				Hîgalê	•		169. To be.
Lhē-gai niyāng	-g	•		Lhi-kē ni-mō	•	•	•	Hît kuhârî .	•	•	170. Being.
Lhī-lhē-ma-chū		•	•	Lbī-kai .	•			· Ait hāḍhi .	•	•	171. Having been.
Jī lhyāgē	•	•		Ji lhīkai .	•	•		Kāhirī	•		172. I may be.
Ji lhyāng	•	•		Jī lhīyai .	•	•		Kāhīrī			173. I shall be.
Jī-jā lhē-m chīr	ani	•	•	Jī-jā lhē-m ch	ing-k	an.	•	Kibiri		-	174. I should be.
Saiiya .	•	•		Saü .	•	•		Hãno	•	\cdot	175. Beat.
Sai-m	•	•		Sa-mō .	•	•		Hataī	•	-	176. To beat.
Sai-gētām	•	•	•	Sa-kai tā-mō	•	•		Hatēt pathā .	•	\cdot	177. Beating.
Dag-sain	•	•	•	Sa-sai-ma-chū	•			Hãno	•		178. Having beaten.
Ji-s sai-tū	•	•	•	Jī-s sā-tū	•		-	Tap hatān-rai .	•	•	179. I beat.
Ga-s sai-ta-n	•	•	-	Ga-s sa-tan		•		Nihã-nō talithā	•	-	180. Thou beatest.
U-s saī-tā	•	•		U-s sa-tā	•	•	•	Ni-hā-nō talithā	•		181. He beats.
In-s sai-ta-nē	•	•	•	Ji-sai sa-tū	•	•		Tap hatānā .	•	•	182. We beat
Ganī-sē sē-ta-nē	i	•	•	Ga-sai sa-tan	•		•	Ni hatā	•	•	183. You beat.
Usī-s sai-ta-nē		•	\cdot	U-s sa-tā	•	•	\cdot	Nai'h galänōth	•	•	184. They beat.
Ji-s sēgas .	1	•		Ji-s sa-k-sō	•			Nai hattā .	•	•	185. I beat (Past Tense).
Gasai sē-n-s	,	•		Ga-s san-s	•	•		Vāī hattā .	•	•	186. Thou beatest (Past Tense).
Usai sē-s	•	•		U-ssai-sõ				Vã hattā .	•	-	187. He beat (Past Tense),

English.		Kanāw'rī (Bashahr).	Kanāshī.	Manchāṭī (Lahul).
188. We beat (Past Tense)	-	Ningấn-s tóng-ich : kíshang-s tóng-yē.	Ni to-meng	Ngye-tsi teng-nga ten .
189. You heat (Past Tense		Kinấn-5 tóng-ich	Kī to-ge-kung	Kye-tsi teng-nga-ten .
190. They beat (Past Tensor	;)	Pógon-s táng-ā	Dugash toge-kush	Do-tsi teng-nga ter
191. I am beating .	\cdot	G*-s túng-ā-to-g	Gu to-gu-tak	Gye teng-dza-to-tog .
192. I was beating .	\cdot	G*-s túng-ā-tē-g	Go toz tod-kek	Gye teng-dza-to-i-ga .
193. I had beaten •	\cdot	Ga-s tóng-shids toch .	Gu to-me-kun	Gye teng-dza te-g
194. I may beat .		G°-s túng-shids-gēā	Gu to-tan	Chhaînyeu gye teng-mo-ga
195. I shall beat •		Ga-s tong-tog; ga-s tong- cho-g; ga tong-shog.	Gu to-tak	Gye-teng-mo-g
196. Thou wilt beat .		Ka-s tóng-to-n	Ko to-ta-kun	Ka-i teng-mo-na
197. He will beat .	-	Do-s tóng-to	Dus to-ta-ku	Do-i teng-mo-to
198. We shall beat .		Ningán-s tóng-toch; kíshang-s tóng-tê.	Ni to-tang	Ngyc- <u>ts</u> i teng-mo-ni
199. You will beat .		Kinán-s tóng-toch .	Ki to-ta-kun	Kye- <u>ts</u> i teng-mo-ni
200. They will beat .		Dógon-s túng-to	Dugash tota-kush	Do-tsi teng-mo-re
201. I should beat .	•	·····	Gu to-tang	Gye teng-dzi jüs
202. I am beaten .			Gu to-to bong-tak, or ang-p togu-ta-kush.	Gyebi teng-si tot'
203. I was beaten .	•	*** ***	Ang-p to-ge-kush	Gyebi teng-si toi
204. I shall be beaten	•		Gu toto bura-tak	Gye teng-sa yo-g
205. I go		G^ bí-ō to-g	Gu bung-tak	Gye yoā to-g
206. Thou goest .	•	Ka bí-ō to-n	Ko bungt	Kā yoā to-na
207. He goes	•	Do bí-ō to	Du bokuta	Du yoak'
208. We go		Ningán bí-5 toch; kíshang bí-5 tónmē.	Ni bong-tang, or, bu-ko-tang.	Ngye-re yoû to-ni
209. You go		Kinān bi-o toch	Ki bong-tang; or, buko-tang.	Kye-re yoû to-ni
210. They go		Dógon bí-o to.	Duga boke	Do-re yoù to-re
211. I went	•	G* bī-é-g	Gu bo-kek	Gye il-i-ga, ildeg
212. Thon wentest .	•	Ka bf-æn	Ko bo-ken	Kā il-i-na, ilde-na
213. He went		Do bigy, bī-ē-sh	Du bok	Du il-i, ildek'
214. We went		Ningấn bí-ē-ch; kishan bí-ē.	Ni bo-keng	Ngye-re il-dani, ili-ni .

Chamba Lähu	jī.		Bunín (Lahul).
Tenggādeni .			Hing-zhi tahi tib-men
Tenggadeni .			Han-zhi tshi tib-tsha-ni ,
Tenggåder .	•		Tal-zni-tshi tib-tsha
			Gyi-zi khyed-kya ni-a
Tēzādeg	•		Gyi-zi khyed-kya-ni-za .
•••••			Gyi-zi khyed-men-gya .
			Kba-che-ni gyi-zi khyed- kyi-la.
Tēmog	•	•	Gyi-zi khyed-kya-ta
Tēmon	•	•	Han-zi khyed-kya-ta-na .
Tēmdo	•	•	Tal-zi khyed-kya-ta
Tēmoni		•	Hing-zhi-tehi khyed-kya- theg.
Tēmoni	٠		Han-zhi- <u>ts</u> hi khyed-kya- thad-ni.
Těmor	•	•	Tal-zhi- <u>ts</u> hi khyed-kya-th a d
Gī tēzi tõig .	•	•	Gyi-zi khye-cha-gyun .
••• ••			Gyi-rog khyed-cha-re .
*****			Gyi-rog khyed-kyu-za .
*****			Gyi-rog khyed-kya-thad .
Yuādō, yuādog	•		Gyi egyeg
Yuadon	•	•	Han eya-na
Ytiād	•		Tal eyare
Yuådoni .	•	·	Hing-zhi ekhyek'
Yuādoni .	•	·	Han-zhi ekhag-ni
Yuador	•	·	Tal-zhi ekhag-re
Ideg .	•	·	Gyi e-len
Îden	•		Han e-lena
Īdē · •	•		Tal e-len
Īdeni	•	·	Hing-zhi elen-ni
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Rangkas (Almora).	Dārmiyā (Almora).
Nung sasain	In-sai sēyās
Khami sasait	Gani-satā sēs
Hvē-chan sasait	Usī-satā sēs
Ji-s sāti-lā	Jī-s sai-tī
Ji-s sainsis	Jī-s sai-lan tāyasñ
Ji-s sais	Jī-s sai-tā
Ji-s saitati ; ji-s sāti	Jī-s sai-tī
*** ***	Jī-s sai-yāng-tī
Gaś sātan	Ga-s sē-yā-tā
Hvē-chan sāt	U-s sē-yà-tā
Ji-s sait	In-s sē-yã-tã
Ga-s śā	Gani-s sē-yā-tanī
Api sāt	Usī sē-yā-tā
Ji-s sai-m chyung-ni .	Ji-s sai-m ching-ni
Ji-s sait; jikchi sīch	Jī pung-sai-sā; jī pung- chasō.
Jikmaslā ; jiksaiti	Ji pung-sai-nī-sē-sū; ji pung-hicha-sō.
Jik kamsasi	Jī pung-sai-yāng-tā
Ji diś	Jī dī-sī
Ga diśn	Gai dīsinalā
Hvē din	U di-ni
Nung disung	In disvan
Gan disin	Ganī disinīlā
Hvē-jan dīn	Usi di-ti ,
Ji diś	Jī dī-sī
Ga dinos	Gai dī-nēsū
Hvē di-din	Ū dē-sū
Nung dyangs	In diyas

Chaudängsī (Almora).	Byžngsi (Almora).	Janggali (Almora).	English.
In-sa sē-nē-s	. In-s sansō	Vain hatā	188. We beat (Past Tense).
Ganī-sai sē-ni-s	. Gani-s sani-so	Vē hatā	189. You beat (Past Tense).
Usi-sai sē-mē-s	. Usi-s sanchō	Hattā	190. They beat (Past Tenss).
Ji-s sai-g-tā-tu .	. Ji-s sa-k tā-tō	Nā hatai bī	191. I am beating.
Ji-s sai-g-tay-us .	. Ji-s sa-k tā-tō niyēs	Halā syāgō	. 192. I was beating.
Ji-s sai-g-as	. Ji-s sa-k-sō	Nā bānēvāthā.	. 193. I had beaten.
Ji-s sai-tāng, sai-tu .	. Ji-s sa-chi-tā	Na chalain	. 194. I may beat.
Ji-s :- '-yang	. Ji-s sa-ts	Na hatāchau	. 195. I shall beat.
Ga-s sō-yan	Ga-s sainē	Kāt hataigā	. 196. Then wilt beat.
Usai sē-yang	U-s sailo	Hattālē	197. He will beat.
In-sai sē-yang-nē .	In-s sainē	Nā hattaigā	. 198. We shall beat.
Gani-s sē-yang-ni .	Gani-s sa-tami	Gatā hattai	. 199. You will beat.
Usī-s sē-yang	- Ati-s sai-lo	Uī hattai	200. They will beat.
Ji-s sai-m chi-na-ni .	Jī sa-m chi-khayē	Na hatai	201. I should beat.
Jiyō dung-s; jī pachyāng	ye Jī pa-chyāng-yēsō ; pa-jyāng yēsō.	Ta (i.e., na) hătâng .	202. I am beaten.
Jiyō dung-sir niyês ; pachyang-nê.	Jī pa-chyāng-tha nīyēsō	Na hatāng	203. I was beaten.
Jiyō dung-syāgayē .	Ji pa-chyāng-nan .	Nā siggāy	204. I shall be beaten.
Jī diyē	· Ji diys	Gārī görā	. 205. I go.
Gan dénā	· Gan dī-ganō	Nã jai	, 206. Thou goest.
Ū dī-nī	· U di-gan	Raijai	. 207. He goes.
În di-në	In di-ganyè	Aṛyū gā	. 208. We go.
Ganī dī-nī	· Gani di-gnī-lā	Nai ghatai, nārī üng-gā	209. You go.
Usī dī-nē	- Atī dig-pat	Ghatai	. 210. They go.
Jī dēyas	Jī diyē	Gārī jai	. 211. I went.
Gan dinas	. Can din-so	Nă chai-kā	. 212. Thou wentest.
U dē-s	. U dias	Rai kvā	. 213. He went.
In di-nës	. In di-në-sō	Nā gā	, 214. We went

English.	Kanāw ^a rī (Bashahr).	Kanāshī.	Manchāṭī (Lahul).
215. You went	Kinān bi-ēch	Kī bo-keng	Kye-re ili-ni, ilda ni .
216. They went .	Dógon bigy, bf-ē-sh	Duga boke	Do-re ili-re, ildore .
217. Go	Вуй	Bungt	Il-a
218. Going	Bf-5	Bungsta bungsta	Yoa yoa
219. Gone	Bf-bī	Bok	II-je
220. What is your name?	Ka-n nāmang t ^a t ?	Kanka chhuge nam ? .	Kanu min chhi?
221. How old is this horse?	Ju ráng-ū tē bóshang ? .	Nu rang-ka toda bres to? .	Di rhang tāipa shut' ?
222. How far is it from here to Kashmir ?	Ju-ágts Kashmíras tang téra vark dű ?	Nich Kashmir toda dur to?	Kashmir der- <u>ts</u> i anyo oi tot'.
223. How many sons are there in your father's house?		Kan bā-ka kim-a tai (or toda) chhanga tush?	Kanu bā-u ghar-rang taī- mi yo tore ?
224. I have walked a long way to-day.	Tốrō ga gob vork yú-yun to-g.	Gu tid duraz andez bura- kek.	Gye tog san-jig oï joriga
225. The son of my uncle is married to his sister.	Gatót böbá-u chang-s gatót böbá-u rings tang jánê tang lánshits.	Āka bākanna-ka chho-ka biang du-ka ringz-rang	Gyin agun yo do-u rhing rang bea lasi tot'.
226. In the house is the sad- dle of the white horse	Tog ráng-ũ gã kím-a du	shot-ke. Kim-a chhog ghore-ka kathi to.	Tshangsi rhang-ngu chiga du ghar-rang tot'.
227. Put the saddle upon his back.	Gấ-ũ nữ-u pishtíng den shed.	Du-ka pishting-nga kathi piching.	Do-u thā khā-ring chhiga kye-u.
228. I have beaten his son with many stripes.	Ga-s dố-u cháng-ũ gob tóng-shids-to.	Gu kan-ka chho-uj masti bent lämek (or läge).	Gye do-n yo-bi mast t*ráb-tsi teng-ri-ga.
229. He is grazing cattle on the top of the hill.	zen rōāgō to.	Du kathing-nga langa rakuta-to.	Doi gō-u pundza-ring goane re roag-tsak'.
30. He is sitting on a horse under that tree.	rang den toshis du.	Du ranga nu biṭingan yen nāshik.	Du buthau poyang i rhang- dzau-tog ting tot'.
31. His brother is taller than his sister.	Nű-u baía an-u ringsés lámas dű.	Du-ka bau du-ka ringz-ka nits lamas.to.	Dō-u kākā dō-u rhing be- <u>ts</u> i lame tot'.
32. The price of that is two rupees and a half.	Nű-u mólang nish rüpfas pü paúli dü.	Du-ka mulang rāi tok to .	Dō-u las dhaï tangga shut'.
33. My father lives in that small house.	Ang böba nu gátots kím-ö tősh-ö tő-sh.	Ang bā nu phākuch kima royo-to.	Gyiu bā du bare ghar-rang bang-dzak'.
34. Give this rupee to him	Jū rūpiā nū́-ū ran	Nu tokup duguj rat	Di ṭangga do-bi rãu
35. Take those rupees from him.	Nũ rũpian-ũ nũ-dagts un .	Duga tokap du-dits üt .	Dō ṭangga-re dō-u do-r- <u>tṣ</u> i lep-tu.
36. Beat him well and bind him with ropes.	Nű-ü gob sítiā, b ^a shes tsúrā.	Dup masti to-u (tomuk) hed bushus tshudke.	Du-bi ruthe teng-nge rashi- rang tshu-du.
37. Draw water from the well.	Kűang-öts ti dab	Kuats tī du-tang (or dut) .	Khuang-dzi ti hutu
38. Walk before me .	Ang oms pai	Aka nandris por	Gyen tu-i jo
39. Whose boy comes behind you?	Hát-u chang ki-n nyums búd-o to?	Hat-ka chho kan-ka hipich buro-to?	Kanu thal-e atu kātu a- pak'?
40. From whom did you buy that?	Hat-úgts ka-s nű-ű zogkin ?	Dup ke hate ditse khang-	Kai du atu do-r-tsi tsum- de-na?
 From a shopkeeper of the village. 	Desháng-o id baniá dagts .	Gramanga hatidaro dita	Nagar-rau hatwāṇi-u dor-tai
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Chamba Lāhuļī.	Bunáu (Lahul).
Īdeni	Han-zhi elen-ni
Īder	Tal-zhi elen
Īl; ilani	Ela
•••••	Еуа-еуа
	Eli-tang
Kã ming chhi shu?	Han-gyi ming kha yen? .
Di rhãphi tēmi shūi ? .	The shrangs-tog it'-bing- kya-za?
Dets Kashmir chhiri ohëtar to?	Khyag-chi Khachul ichig waī-ni?
Kã bảo dor tēmi yō tod? .	Han-gyi awai kyum-dog idmi bu- <u>ta</u> ha goag ?
Gé to ohētārē āndo	Than gyi dag-med wai-chi ran-gya.
Geā cheje bāo yoē do rhīra sādē bīāh lhāto.	Gyii a-gu-i bu- <u>ts</u> ha-g tal-gyi shring bag-mag ri-shi-ni.
Chungh sãsi rhân (or rhãphi) palānz tod.	Shii shrangs-kyi chhiga tha- zu kyum-dog ni.
Do thākharī palānz <u>ts</u> hū .	Chhiga tal-gyi gyab-tog bu- ra.
Gī do yō hajē tenggādeg .	Gyi-zi tal-gyi bu-tsha-rog tal-chag mang-po khyed- men-gya.
Rāč punzarī trāī ghuaņ pauhālē ruā <u>ts</u> ādē.	Roang-gi tib- <u>ts</u> og tal dundo roag-ka-re.
Buttho pôcã da rhân tothi têzi toi.	Tal butraï thil-dog shrangs- kyi yar-tog zhod-chi-ni.
Do nuā ēno rhing vē morē to.	Tal-gyi a-chho ta-i a-che basta kyui ni.
Do lāhā ḍhāī ṭangg	Tha-zu-i las phed-dang sumi yen.
Gen bā bāē chumhu brā .	Gyi-i awa thazu phē <u>tsē-ts</u> i kyum-dog zhod-chi-ni.
Dobī dī ṭangg ranī keō .	The tangka tal-dog da
Då tangg do dots nenz hadeu.	Tha-zu tangka tal-gyi nung- chi thin-na.
Do kễ hajê têŭ thūzeran tshū.	Tal-dog e-po khyed-zhi ra- shi-dang chhun-na.
Bāini tī hund	Chhu-dong-chi soti hoán-na
Giū tāī jo	Gyi basta du-reg dong .
Kã thalē āduh yō ābād?	Han-gyi kho-chi su-i bu- tsha ra-ro ?
Kễ du ảdō do <u>is</u> hàndân f	Han-zî tha-zu su i nung-chi ishong-men ?
Gî harî do <u>is</u> hândā .	Legs-kyi hatipaï nung-chi .
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Rangkas (Almora).	Dārmiyā (Almora).
Gan dinis	Ganī dēnīsō
U dēj	
	. Usī dīso
Di	. Dē , .
Dēlmhā; dadē; dinēg	. Dē-lan
Tābēn	. Táybachū
Gō-g kha mbyã śini ?	. Gai kha mang-sen?
I rhả gulà syangn sinī? I	Nai rang ulāng syāng-nī ?
rhả umar gulà lhya?	nadō rāng ulāng in kotā ?
Ida-patī Kāsmir-k mulk	Dō kharchū Kasmīrū ulāng
gulā hvānm šini?	vānī ?
Go bā-g sung-r gulā sēri	Gō bā chim-rā ulāng sirī
sini?	nisīm?
Jyē thyā mhan hvānm	Jī thiyā dalo vānam gam-
gamchīs.	chayesā.
Ji kākā-g sērī-g u rhangśē-	tī bāgō gā-s; ji-gu kakā-gū
gō dagar baryād lhingchu.	sirī-gū bāgu-chā u-gu
U chyam-ar sin rhã jīn sini	rangsyā jālika-chū. Idū chim-rū idū sīn rāng-gū taigā nī-sī-nī
Hvē jin hvēdō-g lung-ar	Taigā ā-lang-rū tā-nī ; u-jō
tā-tē.	taigā chayā.
Ji-s vī-gō sērī chābuk-sō	Ji-sū u-g sirī-jō dalō chyāk-
mhan ksīś.	samās kamī-sū.
Vī hvēdā ţuk-yart rai-malā	Ū idd dāng gā pisā rū tāng
hvēt.	rē-lan-tā-tā.
U tā sing-gō khvã-syũ tā	Ū tadū sing-g ramarū tūkō
rhã-yaran ksyūchēn.	rāng-rū-ṭī syōngksin nisīnī
U pi-khan u rhangéya hvē	Usī pē vo rangsyā chyāng.
mhan uhan sini.	rī yambā bung nisīnī.
U-g vür niśi pür n āyyal mul šiui.	Ū molū nāsā paisā nīsīnī .
Jē bū hvē nyūpan chyam-ar	Ji-g bā tado mīn chim-ru
rhai-ni.	syongksinī.
Emuludā nē (or dā-tē).	Nado rupayž vo-jo dā-nī .
Ē mul u-jabĭ-paṭī kur	Tad rupayã vō-jō-chū kur-ni
U khūb kam gār jyang-s	U jain kama-nī hāng jyāng-s
gvidai.	gvī-nī.
Hvē kū-paļi ti thā	Idā bāvēs tī thai-nī
Ji gán-syūgan chản	Jī-g tūtū dē
Gani-g hyð-su kha-mi-k söri	Gō yüngkön-ti khami siri
rai-ni?	rü-ni?
Ua-sō i gudai-baṭī mil-kur-	Ga-s ŭ tadō khamī-jō tūnīsū
nau-ś (or mōl-kur-nai-ś) ?	(tōnasō) ?
H võ sang-khữ tā dugāndār	ídű sang-khu-chu lákö
baṇi.	pañchā-jō.
W. P. L566	

Chaudăngsī (Almora).	Byžngsī (Almora).	Janggali (Almora).	English.
Gani di-nis	. Ganī di-nī-sō	. Nai ghatai	. 215. You went.
Usī di-nēs	. U dē-sau	. Va kā-lē	216. They went.
Dē	. Dī	Gatai	. 217. Go.
Dēgēnīm ; dē-di-man-chū	. Di-gai, di-g-yē, dī-g .	. Gatā	. 218. Going.
Pi-di-s	Pī-dī-sō	. Gatā	219. Gone.
Gan kha min-at? .	Nā min kha min ta-lē?	. Năng nâm dhâm kuni ? .	220. What is your name?
Hidī rāng ulāng syāgat lho (ulāng un kukat-ni-yāngā	Ai rũng ulãng syāng-tha-in ai rũng in ulãng lhĩ ?	; Rai ghōrā gai chōkē buḍhā	P 221. How old is this horse?
Hidā-khar-chī Kasmīr ulān vānam anī ?	g Anē-kharchi Kāsmīr ulāng vānam-in?	Dhikurā Kāsmir mulk jhik lākā ?	222. How far is it from here to Kashmir?
Nā bā chim-jā ulā sirī ananē?	Nā bā chim-jā ulāng sirī- māng inan?	Ghai payo kuni?	223. How many sons are there in your father's
Tī thiyāng mat vānam gamchēs.	Than jyā jī mat vānam diyēso.	Nā dainā jhīk lākā raikvā .	house? 224. I have walked a long way to-day.
Ji-g kāku sirī võ rangsyā- tē-bhā dhāsī kalīchu; ji-g kāku sirī-g byōū võ	tī jōrō byō-lhī-nē-gī; ji-g kākū-g sirī-g byō u-g	bhainvā saoā biha khaīvā	225. The son of my uncle is married to his sister.
ringsyā-tē lhich. Ati chim-jā ati sid rāng-g taikā ani.	rangsyā tī lhī-chō. Atī chim-jā atī sit rāng-g tēgā in.	Ai-u-mat dhaulyā ghōryō bākhar.	226. In the house is the sad- dle of the white
Võ lug her taikā ṭay (ṭainī]	Ati rāng lung-g-yar tēgā tānī.	Sui-hi bākhar puṭṭī thā .	horse. 227. Put the saddle upon his back.
Ji-s vō sirī mat chyāk-dāgas	Ji-s võ siri-jā mat çhyāk- samā dā-kas.	Na sni-hi bhaūvā jhik sikrā saino.	228. I have beaten his son with many stripes.
Achchhē atī vēg chang hēr ṭāng jā-g anēn.	Võ ati däng-g pisä-yar täng- rai tök-tä-tanan.	Hvai lahi alko dhurā dingā hacharo ūṭā lā-hi.	229. He is grazing cattle on the top of the hill.
Atī atī sing mitatū tig rāng-jā ti syök-sid anī.	Vē atī sing yē-khū tig rāng- jā-tī syōngksid-in.	Hvē lahi sigē hvēn-kā-nī ghōrā raphau.	230. He is sitting on a horse under that tree.
U-g pī vō rangsyā chyag-rī bhungtai anī,	rī bung thain.	Suī bhaŭ pā-nī-kā bhainyu bhaŭvā.	231. His brother is taller than his sister.
Ati mölü ngai muhar ani .	U-g maulu ngai muhara in	Sui pangā muharā	232. The price of that is two rupees and a half.
Jī-g bā ati mid chim-jā anī .	Ji-g bā ati mīd chim-jā vasat-in.	Uthulā nau (sic)	233. My father lives in that small house.
Hidī rupayā võ dātē; hidī rupayā vō-jā dāyā.	Ai rupayā u-jā dā-ti (da-ni)		234. Give this rupee to him.
Atī rupayā-māng vō-jā- kharchi kōr-san.	Atī rapayā-māng vo-jā kor- yo.		235. Take those rupees from him.
Vo bud-syūng dhungaya hāng phī-s gyīya.	phi-mang-s giyō.		236. Beat him well and bind him with ropes.
Ati kuvāngku kharchī ti havēy. Ji-g larē chham	hvangiyō.		237. Draw water from the well.
Nā yung-kō-ti khami siri	Ji-g larē chham		238. Walk before me.
rānī ? Ga-s sei kha-mi-jā tōnas	rā-gan ?		239. Whose boy comes behind you?
(tōnis) ?	Ga-s atī khamī-jā tōnīsō ?		240. From whom did you buy that
dukāndāri-jā.	Atī sang-khu-chī tig pañchā- jā-kharchī.	Can-ka manpai dūkā-jar .	241. From a shopkeeper of the village. W. P. L.—567

NORTH ASSAM GROUP.

The mountainous region between the Assam Valley and Tibet, from Bhutan in the west to the Brahmaputra in the east, is inhabited by a series of tribes which all speak Tibeto-Burman languages. Beginning from the west, they are the Akas, the Daflas, the Abor-Miris, and the Mishmis. The last mentioned tribe comprises several subtribes, such as the Chulikātā, the Digāru, and the Mījū. The dialects spoken by all these tribes will in this Survey be brought together into one group, the North Assam group.

Most speakers of the dialects of this group live outside the settled territories of British India, and the numbers returned at the censuses of 1891 and 1901 were accordingly unimportant. The table which follows registers the details—

					Name	e of la	nguage	e.					Census of 1891.	Census of 1901.
Aka	•	•				•	•	•			•	•	20	26
Abor						•							170	357
Miri													35,510	40,472
Daflā			•			•							990	805
Mishmi	•			•			•		•	•			220	71
											To	ral.	36,910	41,731

We have no trustworthy information about the number of speakers outside British India.

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Konow, Sten,—Note on the Languages spoken between the Assam Valley and Tibet. Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, 1902, pp. 127 and ff.

The North Assam group is not a well-defined philological group with salient grammatical features distinguishing it from other Tibeto-Burman forms of speech.

The Abor-Miris and the Daflas speak dialects which are so closely related that they can justly be considered as one and the same form of speech. In vocabulary it often strikingly agrees with one or the other forms of Mishmi, as will be seen from the short table which follows—

Arrow					Digāru	m-pü			Daflā	ō-pū
Blood					Mijû	นร์			"	น์เ
Brother					Digāru	nā-pi	7		"	a-bū
Dark		•			"	kā-nō	i-ā		,,	kān
Dog					"	n-kwi	į		,,	ī-kī
Dream					27	yāmō	i		,,	y ũ mmä
Drink					,,	4			,,	tū
Eat					17	$dhar{a}$,,	da
Feather		•			37	am			37	am
Flower					23	tāpā			"	оррй
Hair			•		**	dhong	7		27	dùm
Horn					9 7		•		"	a-rū
Pig				٠	37	ba-li			,,	illy?
Slave	•				37	m-po			,,	₽ā
Snake					,	tābō			99	tab

Tail	•	•	•	•	•	Digårn	$la ext{-ming}$		•		Daflā	ā-mi
Tree	•	•	•	•	•	33	mā-sāng	٠		•	"	\$41
\mathbf{W} ater	•	•	•	•		**	mā-chī				.,	ishi

Such instances might easily be multiplied. They are strengthened by a certain correspondence in some grammatical features. Thus the Dafiā plural suffix ede can be compared with Chulikātā $d\bar{u}$; the personal pronoun of the second person is the same; the plural suffix long in Digāru pronouns agrees with lu in Miri and Dafiā. Dafiā and Miri agree with Digāru in using a negative suffix, while Mījū, like Aka, prefixes the negative to the verb, and so on.

In many important points, however, Mishmi differs from Abor-Miri, and the points of correspondence just referred to are not of an importance sufficient to prove a close connexion between the two forms of speech.

The difference between Aka and the other dialects of the group is still greater. Under the influence of strange and radical phonetical laws Aka has assumed a peculiar appearance, and it is often difficult to compare its vocabulary with that of other Tibeto-Burman forms of speech. The short table which follows registers some of the most striking cases of coincidence. Thus, Aka āū, Daflā ā-bo, father; Aka ā-nī, Daflā ān, mother; Aka āngā-sā and sā, Meithei angang and ma-chā-child; Aka nyu, Kuki-Chin nai and nau, younger brother or sister; Aka lū, Tibetan blo, Lushēi lung, mind; Aka e-nyī, Daflā a-nyī, eye; Aka nùsù, Tibetan sna, Newārī nhāsa, nose; Aka khie, Tibetan mgo, Burmese khaung, head; Aka (khe-)chu, Chaudāngsī chham, hair (of the head); Aka mī, Tibetan me, fire; Aka khu, Dūmi, Kūlung, etc., ku, Tibetan chhu, water; Aka ju, Singphō jan, sun; Aka chhī, Tibetan nyi, fish; Aka bho and vo, Tibetan phog, Lushēi vok, pig; Aka ke, Spitti ghö, cloth; Aka tsāu, sa, Tibetan za, eat; Aka thū, Tibetan 'athung-ba, Daflā tū, drink; Aka ji, Tibetan sbyin, Dafla ji, give; Aka lāu, Meithei lāu, take; Aka je, Rangkas sē, run; Aka ze, se, Tibetan shi, die, and so on.

Aka also differs from the other dialects of the group in many details of grammar. On the whole, it can be said that the North Assam group is not a merely philological, but also rather a geographical group.

I now proceed to make some remarks about the position of these dialects and their relation to other Tibeto-Burman languages. Our knowledge of them, and especially of Aka and Mishmi, is however unsatisfactory, and the remarks which follow are given with every reserve.

The North Assam dialects can roughly be described as Tibeto-Burman forms of speech intermediary between Tibetan and the dialects spoken in Assam and Further India.

The old prefixes are still to a great extent independent syllables and have not been fused into one sound with the ensuing base.

We are not satisfactorily informed about the tone system. Miri and Mishmi are said to possess tones. We do not know if the same is the case in Aka or Daflā. The use of an elaborate system of tones in at least some of these dialects is a point of agreement with Central Tibetan, Central Nāgā, and Kachin. The preservation of the old prefixes the North Assam group shares with most Tibeto-Burman dialects of Assa Further India, and also with many Himalayan dialects.

There are no traces of the rich pronominalization prevailing in one group of Hir layan dialects. The North Assam dialects agree with most typical Indo hir vol. III, PART I.

languages in the principles regulating the conjugation of verbs. The verb is virtually a noun, and it does not differ for person and number.

There are, however, some minor points in which the North Assam dialects agree with the Himalayan forms of speech.

The numeral $ksh\bar{\imath}$, two, in Aka, seems to agree with Byāngsī $nis\bar{\imath}$, Kanāwarī nish, Sunwār nishi, etc., as to the termination. The suffix chu of the past tense in Aka is perhaps connected with $ch\bar{o}$ and $ch\bar{u}$ in Dārmiyā. The suffix na of the relative participle in Aka and Abor-Miri-Daflā can be compared with $n\bar{a}$ in Yākhā. Similarly the adjective suffix $z\bar{a}$, $s\bar{a}$, or seu in Aka can be compared with the suffix $ch\bar{u}$ in Māgarī and cho in Chouras'ya. The accusative suffix em, am in Abor-Miri-Daflā, bears a striking resemblance to the m which is added to the articles re and mo in Róng in order to form an accusative. The use of generic prefixes with numerals in Daflā and Miri can be compared with the use of such suffixes in Nēwārī and other Himalayan dialects. It is, however, more closely connected with the use of generic prefixes in the Bodo languages, some Nāgā dialects such as Mikir and Empēō, and the Kuki-Chin group.

In this connexion we may also note that all North Assam dialects, with perhaps the exception of Mijū, use the same verb substantive in the formation of a periphrastic present. The various forms of this verb all correspond to Tibetan 'adug-pa, which is used in the same way. Compare further the suffix tu of the present in Yākhā, Limbu, Byāngsī, etc.

The reflexive suffix $sh\bar{u}$, $s\bar{u}$ in Abor-Miri-Daflā should be compared with s in Bāhing, and perhaps also with che in Mikir.

The formation of causals is only known in Daflā and Miri, where the verb 'to do,' ma and $m\bar{o}$, respectively, is suffixed to the principal verb. Compare the causal suffixes mu in Rai, $m\bar{a}t$ in Rong and other dialects. The causal in Aka is probably formed in the same way as in Tibetan.

The causal suffix ma, $m\bar{o}$ can also be compared with the prefixed ma, man, etc., in the Old Kuki dialects.

The genitive is formed by prefixing the governed to the governing word. Aka often repeats the former by means of a pronominal prefix before the latter. The same is, to some extent, the case in Himalayan dialects, and it is the prevailing principle in the Kuki-Chin group. The genitive suffixes ka in Daflā and Miri, chi, etc., in Aka correspond to forms such as Tibetan kyi, Meithei gi, Bunān gyi, gi, Kanāshī $k\bar{u}$, and so on.

A prefix which occurs in various forms such as a, e, i, o, and u, is apparently used in all dialects, with perhaps the exception of Mījū. It is not like the Burmose prefix a, used to form nouns of action from verbs, but is very common before nouns and adjectives, apparently without adding anything to the meaning. A similar prefix is common in many Himalayan dialects, and in the Nāgā and the Kuki-Chin languages. It is probably by origin a demonstrative or personal pronoun. In Aka it is identical in form with the pronoun of the third person.

Daflā, Miri, and Mishmi make use of a prefix ka before adjectives. In this respect they agree with the dialects of the Bodo, Nāgā, and Kachin groups. In this connexion we may also note that Daflā and Miri agree with Kachin in repeating the last syllable of names of animals before the suffixes of gender.

The suffix of the comparative in Dadā and Miri is $y\bar{a}$, which corresponds to $y\bar{o}$ and $z\bar{o}$ in many Kuki-Chin dialects.

Several other postpositions and suffixes can be traced in other connected dialects. Thus the plural suffix de in Aka, kiding in Miri, $ed\bar{e}$ in Daflā, $d\bar{u}$ in Chulikatā, etc., can be compared with Tibetan dag, Manchāṭī de. The suffixes na, la, etc., of the conjunctive participle in Aka, Daflā, and Miri, should be compared with Tibetan na, nas, la, las, and similar forms in many connected languages. The locative suffix $l\bar{u}$ in Daflā and Miri corresponds to Tibetan la. The Miri future suffix ye corresponds to Byāngsī $y\bar{e}$, and so on. It is not however of any interest to register such details, so long as our knowledge of the North Assam dialects is not more satisfactory. They would, at the utmost, give a very imperfect picture of the actual state of affairs. I therefore confine myself to some remarks on the numerals and the personal pronouns.

The first five numerals are:	the t	first fiv	e numer	ale	270	
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	Aks	Dafis	Miri	Chulikātā	Digarn	Mījū
One	ā	akkin	ā-kâ, ā-tēr	e-khē	ē-khing	ko-mō
Two	kshī	anyi	$\vec{a} \cdot ny \hat{i}$	$kar{c}$ - ni	kā-ying	kā-ning
Three	tzù	a-om	ā-นิก เ	kā-sh	kā-sāng	kjī-sām
Four	pfī-rī	a=pl(i)	. ā-pī	kā-ppi	kā-prei	kam-brin
Five	pom	$ar{a}$ - $ng(ar{o})$	ā-ngâ	่ mā-ng ₹	mā-ngā	ka-līin

One.—The forms in Daflā, Chulikātā, and Digāru are practically identical. Aka a corresponds to Miri $\bar{a}k\dot{a}$, Meithei a- $m\bar{a}$, Kachin ai- $m\bar{a}$, Dūrgmāliak'-po; Waling akta, etc. Mījū ko- $m\bar{o}$ perhaps corresponds to Chouras'ya kolo, Bāhing $kon\jmath$, etc. The final $m\bar{o}$ must be compared with $m\bar{a}$ in Meithei a- $m\bar{a}$, Kachin ai- $m\bar{a}$, etc.

Two.—Aka kshī is probably derived from knyis, compare Aka $chh\bar{i}$, Tibetan nyi, fish. The final $sh\bar{i}$ should be compared with the termination in Byāngsī $nis\bar{i}$, etc. The prefix k is identical with Mishmi $k\bar{a}$ and corresponds to Tibetan g in gnyis, two. Daflā and Miri use a prefix \bar{a} like many Central and Eastern Nāgā dialects.

Three.—Mishmi, and probably also Aka, have a prefix $k\bar{a}$ corresponding to g in Tibetan gsum, three. Daflā and Miri prefix \bar{a} . Compare two.

Four.—All dialects apparently contain a numeral li or ri with a suffix pa or p, corresponding to b in Tibetan bzhi, four; b and bi in the Bodo languages; ba and pa in many Nāgā dialects, and pa in Kuki-Chin. To this p Mishmi prefixes $k\bar{a}$ or kam. The form li or ri also occurs in many Himalayan dialects and in the Assam-Burmese languages, while Tibetan zhi differs.

Five.—Mījū ka-līin seems to correspond to Tibetan lnga with ka prefixed. Aka pom is probably derived from pa-nga. Compare Rāi bhok-pu, five. The prefix pa has already been mentioned with 'four.' $M\bar{a}$ in Chulikatā and Digāru $m\bar{a}-nga$, five, corresponds to the prefix ma in the numeral 'five' in Kachin, Meithei, Lhōtā, Miklai, Thukumi, and most Nāgā Bodo dialects.

The higher numerals twenty, thirty, etc., are formed by prefixing 'two,' 'three,' and so on, to the numeral 'ten' in Aka and Mishmi, while Dafiā and Miri suffix the pultiplier after the pattern 'tens-two,' 'tens-three,' etc. Tibetan, Kachin, Burmese, I ikir and other dialects agree with Aka and Mishmi, while the Kuki-Chin and rost Nāgā languages form their higher numerals in the same way as Dafiā and Miri.

I now turn to the personal pronouns.

I:—Aka, Daflā, Miri and Chulikatā have forms which are identical with or derived from Tibetan and Burmese nga. The Digāru pronoun $h\tilde{a}$, I, is probably derived from the same form. Compare Meithei ai and Khoirāo hai. It is probable that the forms beginning with h are due to an aspiration of the initial ng corresponding to the aspirated pronunciation of soft consonants in Eastern Tibet. A strong aspiration might well supersede the rest of the consonant in the pronunciation. A similar interchange between ng and h occurs in dialects of Khami. Mījū $h\bar{i}$ corresponds to ge in Manchātī and to hei in the Kuki-Chin languages. Ni, we, in Aka corresponds to Bhrāmu $n\bar{i}$, Kanāshī ni, etc.

Thou.—Daflā, Miri, and Mishmi have the forms $n\tilde{a}$ and $ny\tilde{a}$, corresponding to Angāmi no and similar forms in numerous Himalayan and Assam-Burmese dialects. Aka $b\tilde{a}$ is perhaps connected with $b\tilde{a}$ in Sir George Campbell's Hati Garya. Aka $j\ddot{o}$, on the other hand, is probably identical with Tibetan khyod, which is locally pronounced $chh\ddot{o}$.

The preceding remarks will have shown that there is considerable difference between the various North Assam dialects. The position which they all and individually each of them occupy with reference to other Tibeto-Burman languages is also complex and cannot be brought under one simple formula. There are numerous points of agreement now with one, now with another group of dialects. The home of the North Assam tribes may be considered as a kind of backwater. The eddies of the various waves of Tibeto-Burman immigration have swept over it and left their stamp on the dialects. On the whole, however, the North Assam forms of speech can be described as links which connect the Tibetan and Himalayan dialects with the languages of the Bodo, Nāgā, Kuki-Chin and Kachin groups.

AKA OR HRUSSO.

The Akas occupy the hills to the north of the Assam valley, between Bhutan in the west and the Daflā hills in the east. The Buruli river forms the boundary between them and the last named country. We do not know how far they extend towards the north.

The tribe is called Aka or Angka by its neighbours. They call themselves Hrusso and Tenae. They are divided into two clans which the Assamese call Hazarikhowa, eaters of a thousand (hearths), and Kapās-chōr, cotton thieves. Among themselves they distinguish about ten minor clans.

The whole tribe is said to number about 230 families. Twenty speakers of Aka were returned from Darrang during the preliminary operations of the Linguistic Survey. At the last Census of 1901 the same number was returned from Darrang. Six speakers were enumerated in other districts, so that the Assam total was 26.

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I am indebted to the Rev. Russel Payne for a list of standard words and phrases and a translation of the parable of the Prodigal Son in Aka. The text of the parable has been forwarded in an incomplete form, because the Aka chief through whose assistance the translation was being prepared disappeared before the completion of the work. It was, therefore, impossible to accompany the text with an interlinear translation, and the text itself is also far from being satisfactory. It has, however, proved impossible to procure new specimens, and I have, therefore, tried to translate the text as best I could. Both text and translation are given with the utmost reserve. I have not ventured to correct the text from the scanty materials at my disposal, and I have made very little use of it for the grammatical sketch. On the other hand, I did not feel my-self justified in leaving it out altogether. The study of Aka is attended with so great difficulties that it is of importance to record all materials which are available for the elucidation of this dialect.

The remarks on Aka grammar which follow are based on the list of words, and on an analysis of the lists published by Messrs. Hesselmeyer and Anderson; see Authorities, above.

Pronunciation.—The best rendering of the various sounds of the Aka dialect seems to be that given by the Rev. C. H. Hesselmeyer. The spelling in the other texts is very inconsistent.

E and i are constantly interchanged; thus, kse and kshi, two; pferi and firi, four; e and i, he; me and mi, fire. Eu is apparently written for i in ba-theu, thy, in the parable.

 \hat{A} , the sound of a in 'all,' is usually written a and o in the specimens; thus, nga, na, nah, and ngna, for $n\hat{a}$, I; ela for $el\hat{a}$, under; seiya and seiyo, his, etc. The sound \hat{a} is probably also meant in rukhri, rawkhri, and reukh, to watch, to tend.

Ö is written a and eu; thus, jah for jö, you; stheu for sthö, nine.

Ü has been rendered in different ways. Mr. Anderson probably means \ddot{u} with his \dot{u} which he describes as a guttural u. He often writes iu and ui instead. The Rev. C. H. Hesselmeyer usually writes \ddot{u} . In other places we find this sound rendered as e, eu, i, and u; thus, nenna, nina, and $n\ddot{u}na$, man; zu, $tz\grave{u}$, and tse, three; nishi, $n\grave{u}$ - $z\grave{u}$, and $n\ddot{u}s\ddot{u}$, nose; upse, upseu, psi, $psi\ddot{u}$, and $psh\ddot{u}$, high; sheu, shi, and $shi\grave{u}$, to strike; gi, giu, gui, and $g\ddot{u}$, to strike.

Short final vowels are apparently sometimes dropped; thus, khes-na, goats, from khesi, a goat; is-ne, he will strike, from $sh\ddot{u}$, to strike, etc. When a final i or \ddot{u} is dropped the preceding consonant is apparently palatalized, and this modified pronunciation seems to be indicated by prefixing an i; thus, a-in for a-ni, a mother; na ish-da for na $sh\ddot{u}da$, they strike, etc.

Concurrent vowels are sometimes contracted; thus, sau, also written seu and sou, from sa-u, child male, son; bou, from ba-u, thy father. In other places the hiatus remains, or euphonic letters such as y and w are inserted; thus, $\bar{a}u$ -ah and $\bar{a}u$ -w- \bar{a} , O father; i-y-au, his father, etc.

An h is often added at the end of a syllable ending in a vowel; thus, $\bar{a}s\bar{a}h$, a cat; nah and na, I. Messrs. Hesselmeyer and Anderson do not use h in this way, and it is probable that it is not pronounced.

The writing of aspirated letters is inconsistent. Thus, we find chhe and che, to say; khak-leh and khakh-leh, again; kheri and keri, young; bha, ba, and vo, an interrogative particle.

The aspirates kh and ph in many words interchange with \underline{kh} , h, and pf, f, respectively. Thus, mu-khu and muhu, male; khu, $\underline{kh}u$, and hu, water; phum and pfumu, five; phu- $gr\bar{a}$ and fu- $gr\bar{a}$, horse, etc. Ph is apparently always pronounced as f or pf, while kh sometimes is the aspirated k and sometimes the spirant \underline{kh} , like the ch in German 'ich' or 'ach.' This latter pronunciation must be supposed wherever kh interchanges with h, and I have, therefore, in such cases written \underline{kh} .

Ch, chh, ts, s, t, and th are apparently all interchangeable. Thus, cha, chha, tsa, and sa, to eat; enicha and enisa, near; ke-chii and ke-ti, hair; na-chhi, na-thi, and na-ti, my, etc. 'To speak' is thicn in Mr. Anderson's list, and che or chhe in the parable. The tha in bho-na thaddu ettheu-e-khu, pigs eaten (?) husks, is probably identical with cha, tsa, sa, to eat.

J is interchangeable with dz; thus, ji and dzi, give. The occasional writings ds and tz probably denote the pronunciation dz; thus, ju and dsu, sun; zu and tzu, three. The latter word is given as 'tse by Mr. Hesselmeyer. And we also find interchange between hard and soft consonants in other cases; thus, sikzi and 'ksi, eight; nza, 'nsu, and ntzu, mouth; sza, 'sse, and ssu, iron. The hard sound is, in all these instances, given by Mr. Hesselmeyer. In the parable we find sipzi, sibji, and subji, to make merry, and in the list of words printed below ve-tchu and jya, give, and so forth. Such

instances point to the aspirated pronunciation of soft initials which is current in Eastern Tibet where g, d, b, j, and dz are hardly distinguishable from the corresponding hard sounds. This tendency is still more developed in the Assam-Burmese languages where most soft initials have become hardened. Aka has apparently in most cases preserved the original soft initials, but the instances quoted above show that the development from soft to hard sounds has also begun in that dialect.

Sh and s are sometimes interchanged; thus, ni-shi and nü-sü, nose; kshi and kse, two. Sz in sza, iron, probably denotes an emphatic s. Messrs. Hesselmeyer and Anderson give 'sse and ssù, respectively.

A k before sibilants has apparently a tendency to be dropped; thus, kshi and $sh\ddot{u}$, gold. We may, therefore, infer that a prefix k has been lost in the numeral zu, 'tse (Hesselmeyer), or $tz\dot{u}$ (Anderson), three. Compare Tibetan gsum.

B and v are sometimes interchanged; thus, in the imperative prefix be or ve, and in the interrogative particle ba or vo. This points to a bi-labial rather than a labiodental pronunciation of v.

M and n interchange in phumia and phun-ge, behind, mi-kzeu and nkzeu, bad. The change seems to be euphonic.

Ng, gn, and n are sometimes interchanged; thus, nga, na, and $n\acute{a}$, I; gne-thau, and ne-thau, country; ngya, gne, and nie, house.

Several other instances of interchange may be collected from the texts. It is, however, impossible to classify them, and we do not know enough of the dialect to go into further details.

We have no information as to whether Aka possesses tones like Daflā and other neighbouring dialects.

Prefixes.—An otiose prefix a, e, or u, is frequently used in nouns and adjectives. Thus, $\bar{a}u$, father; \bar{a} -lu, brother; e-ni, eye; e- $s\acute{a}$, flesh; e-ni-sa, near; e-mie, old; u- $psh\ddot{u}$ and e- $psh\ddot{u}$, high. It is probably identical with the possessive pronoun of the third person; compare e-phun-ge, behind; ba-phum-iya, behind you; e-bra-ge, before; na-bra, before me. Compare Tibetan a in a-ma, mother; a-jo, elder brother.

The prefix na in na-phun, wife; na-sau, son, etc., is perhaps the possessive pronoun of the first person.

Several other prefixes seem to occur. I have not, however, succeeded in analysing them.

There are no Articles. The numeral \bar{a} , one, is used as an indefinite article; thus, $n\ddot{u}$ -na \bar{a} , a man. A- $b\bar{a}$ is sometimes used in the same way; thus, phu- $gr\bar{a}$ a- $b\bar{a}$, a horse. The prefix e and the demonstrative pronouns may also be translated by means of the English articles. Thus, e-mi-mi, a woman; $sitch\dot{u}$ $h\ddot{a}$ - $n\ddot{a}$ khisi \bar{a} -nye $s\ddot{a}$ -m-do- $d\bar{a}$, tiger they goat many eat, tigers eat goats; si- $tch\dot{u}$ $h\ddot{a}$ -e $n\ddot{a}$ $sh\bar{v}$ -nye, tiger that I shoot-will, I will shoot a tiger; $h\ddot{a}$ $n\ddot{u}$ - $n\ddot{a}$ $dz\bar{u}$ - $d\ddot{a}$ - $d\ddot{a}$, that man dying is, the man is dying. It will be seen from these instances that a demonstrative pronoun is often used where we would prefer the indefinite article. The reason is that the Akas, like other uncivilised tribes, have a much more concrete and vivid conception of the outer world than we.

Nouns.—Gender is only apparent in the case of animate beings. Different words are frequently used in order to distinguish the gender of human beings. Thus, $\bar{a}u$, father; \bar{a} -ni, mother: \bar{a} -lu, elder brother; \bar{a} -ma, elder sister: mu-khu, male being;

mi-mi, woman. U and mi are used as suffixes in order to distinguish the gender; thus, sau, son; $s\bar{a}$ -mi or $s\bar{a}m$, daughter. U is probably identical with the word for 'father.' Sir George Campbell gives a-boa, father, and u is probably derived from bo or pho; compare Tibetan pha. Pho is used as a male suffix in the parable in kheri sa-pho, young child-male, younger son. Mi is probably identical with ni, mother. Compare the Tibetan female article ma, and mi in Burmese tha-mi, daughter.

The words mu- $\underline{kh}u$, male, and mi-mi, female, are used in a similar way; thus, mu- $\underline{kh}u$ $s\bar{a}$, male child; mi-mi $s\bar{a}$, female child.

The names of animals are often preceded by a prefix fu; thus, $fu-lu-\underline{kh}u$, cow; fu-mu, buffalo; fu-gra, horse. This prefix must be compared with prefixes such as sa, ta, ma, etc., in other Tibeto-Burman languages before names of animals, and has nothing to do with the distinction of gender. Thus, $fu-gra^{-1}$ is 'animal-horse.'

The usual suffixes for distinguishing the gender of animals are $b\bar{u}$, male, and $n\bar{\iota}$, female, to which em, ám, or um is often prefixed; thus, \bar{a} -shā em-bū, cat male; \bar{a} -shā em-nī, cat female: $s\bar{u}$ -lö um-bū, a dog; $s\bar{u}$ -lö ami-ni, a bitch. Other suffixes are urba, hugá, glo, and rau, male, and jachu, female. Thus, fu-lu-khu urba or ám-bū, an ox; fu-lu-khu jachu, a cow: $v\hat{a}$ hugá, a boar; $v\hat{a}$ nī, a sow: khisi glo or khisi um-bū, a hegoat; dam-rau, a cock, etc.

Number.—Number is, when necessary, denoted by means of numerals, or by adding some word conveying the idea of multitude, such as de, all (?); \bar{a} -nye, and annia, many; thus, $\bar{a}u$ \bar{a} -nye, fathers; fu- $gr\bar{a}$ anniya, horses; bo-de lo-kho-de, goods, and so forth. I cannot analyse the plural suffixes in mi-mi ji-ju u, woman all (?) good, good women; na-re \bar{u} $n\ddot{u}$ - $n\ddot{a}$, to good men; sleh (i.e., $s\ddot{u}$ - $l\ddot{v}$) ne-phe, dogs. The last mentioned suffix ne-phe is perhaps a demonstrative pronoun. Plurality is often indicated by adding plural pronouns. Thus, $sitch\dot{u}$ $h\dot{a}$ - $n\ddot{a}$, tiger those, tigers; $n\ddot{u}$ - $n\ddot{a}$ $f\ddot{v}$ - $n\ddot{a}$, man those, men; $n\ddot{u}$ - $n\ddot{a}$ u $n\ddot{a}$ -chi, man good them-of, of good men; khes- $n\ddot{a}$, goat they, goats; $s\ddot{a}m$ ni, daughter them-to, to daughters, and so on. Ja $u\bar{u}$, fathers, seems to mean your father(s).

Case.—The subject and the direct and indirect object are not, as a rule, marked by the addition of any suffix. An i or e is, however, often added. Thus, se-e hānya, that what, what is that? si-tchù há-e ná shī-nye, tiger that I shoot will; sapse-za ne-na-v-i ba-lain, servant man (he) called; eioi (i.e., e-y-u-i) chhuin, his-father-to (he) said; sām-eh, to a daughter, and so on. Nā-i, them to, is contracted to nai or ni; thus, ná nai khu me ji-m-bie, I them water some gave; sapse-khiri ni che-ne, servant them-to said, he said to the servants. Compare the corresponding suffix a in Daflā and Miri.

The genitive is often expressed by simply putting the governed before the governing noun; thus, fu-grā gro dsimie (Hesselmeyer), horse white saddle, the saddle of the white horse. The governed noun is, however, usually repeated by means of a pronoun. Thus, bau e-ni-ya mu-khu-sā ke-nia da, thy-father his-house-in male-child how-many are? how many sons are there in your father's house? suin e-lâ, tree it's-bottom, under the tree; fu-grā grou saio zin, horse white its saddle, the saddle of the white horse.

A genitive suffix chhi, chi, thi, or ti occurs in forms such as nga-chhi, my; $\bar{a}u-ti$, of a father, and so on.

The vocative may be marked by adding \tilde{a} ; thus, $\tilde{a}u$ -w- \tilde{a} , O father.

¹ Mr. Anderson gives phu-gorā, and adds that the word is borrowed from Assamese. But gorā or grā is probably identical with Bârā go-rai; Lushēi sa-ko-r, and similar forms in other connected languages. It contains the root rang which occurs in the words for 'horse' in most Indo-Chinese languages.

Other relations are indicated by means of postpositions. Such are gu, ge, and ga, i.e., gu, in; se, in; din and goyo, from; e-la, under; bra, and vra before; phum-ia, behind; lure-du-ge, inside in; lure-du-goio, inside from; a or ia, in, with, and so on.

Adjectives.—Adjectives are often followed by a suffix which is written $z\bar{a}$, $s\bar{a}$, and seu; thus, $e \cdot m\bar{i} \cdot z\bar{a}$, thin; $\bar{a} \cdot kh\bar{a} \cdot z\bar{a}$ and $\bar{a} \cdot kh\bar{a} \cdot s\bar{a}$, alone, a single; $khe \cdot r\bar{i} \cdot seu$. young. It is probably a verbal suffix; compare the suffix $s\bar{o}$, chha, or chho of the past tense, and the corresponding use of the suffix $t\bar{a}$ in Lushēi and connected languages. The suffix $s\bar{a}$ seems to occur in the parable in sei $gne \cdot theu$ $a \cdot brew noko$ essami $\bar{a}kh\bar{a}s\bar{a}$ duse laledebi. Mr. Anderson gives $nuku\hat{a}$, rich, and I have, therefore, combined $no \cdot ko \cdot ess\bar{a}$ as an adjective qualifying mi, a man. $Akh\bar{a}s\bar{a}$ corresponds to Mr. Anderson's $\bar{a} \cdot kh\bar{a} \cdot z\bar{a}$, alone, and is used as an indefinite article. I translate the sentence 'that country in (?) rich man a that-with joined, he went and joined a rich man in that country.'

Adjectives usually follow, but occasionally also precede the noun they qualify; thus, $n\ddot{u}$ - $n\ddot{a}$ \ddot{u} , a good man; \ddot{u} $n\ddot{u}$ - $n\ddot{a}$, good men. A suffix na is sometimes added; thus, e- $m\ddot{i}$ - $s\ddot{a}$ -na gnya, small-being house, the small house; khe-ri-seu-na sau, young-being son, the younger son. Such forms must be considered as relative participles. Adjectives are freely combined with verbal suffixes; compare verbs.

The suffix of the comparative is $f\hat{a}$, also written $ph\hat{a}$, phou, pheye, and phau. Thus, $e-n\ddot{u}-mi$ i-ama $psh\ddot{u}-ph\hat{a}-d\bar{a}$, his brother is taller than his sister; $m\bar{i}m$ $h\hat{a}w\bar{i}$ $mu\underline{k}hu$ $psh\ddot{u}-ph\hat{a}$, woman that man tall more, man is taller than woman; ke dedue seioh ge u-phou, clothes all them in good-more, the best cloth. Goyo is used as a particle of comparison in $h\hat{a}$ $n\hat{a}$ goyo $boy\bar{o}$ pheye $umdod\bar{a}$, this soil than that more good-is.

Numerals.—The numerals are given in the list of words. They follow the noun they qualify. They are not combined with generic particles.

 \hat{A} , one, corresponds to \bar{a} in Miri, a- $m\bar{a}$ in Meithei, ai in Singphō, etc. \hat{A} - $kh\bar{a}$ - $s\bar{a}$, alone, seems to be a fuller form of the numeral; compare Daflā akkin- $g\bar{a}$, Digāru \bar{e} -khing, Chulikatā e- $kh\bar{e}$. An instance has already been given of the use of \bar{a} - $kh\bar{a}$ - $s\bar{a}$ as an indefinite article. The final $s\bar{a}$ is probably the same suffix as has been mentioned under the head of adjectives.

Kshi, two, corresponds to Tibetan gnyis; compare Aka chhi, Tibetan nyi, fish. Sir George Campbell gives gu-ni. Compare also Sunwār nishi and similar forms in other Himalayan languages.

Zu, three, is written $tz\hat{u}$ by Mr. Anderson and 'tse by Mr. Hesselmeyer. Zu probably represents the pronunciation $dz\hat{u}$. It probably contains a prefix k corresponding to g in Tibetan gsum, three. Compare the forms kshi and $sh\ddot{u}$, gold.

Firi, four, corresponds to Digāru kāprei, Bârâ brè, and similar forms in other Bodo languages. Compare the form fali, li in Lepcha, Kuki-Chin, and Kachin; le in Burmese; bli in Mãgarī, and so on.

Phum or pfumu is probably derived from pa-nga and contains the usual numeral nga. Sir George Campbell gives bu-ngu. Similar forms occur in all other Tibeto-Burman languages; thus Rengmā Nāgā pfü and pūng, five.

The higher numerals are formed by prefixing the multiplier to the numeral 'ten.' Thus, $dz\hat{u}-r\hat{u}$ (Anderson), thirty; phumu-ru, fifty. Bi-sha, twenty, is borrowed. It also occurs in Dimāsā.

Pronouns.—The following are the personal pronouns,— $ny\hat{a}$ or $n\hat{a}$, I. ba, thou. e or i, he, she, it. ni, we. $j\ddot{o}$ or ze, you. $n\ddot{a}$, they.

 $N\hat{a}$ is also written nga, and the initial was originally ng; compare Tibetan and Burmese nga, $ng\bar{a}$. Phu, I, in No. 162 is probably a pronoun with the meaning 'self.' It is also combined with other personal pronouns; thus, ngi-phu, we, jah-phu, thou. 'We' is ni or ngi; compare Bhrāmu $ng\bar{a}$, I; $n\bar{\imath}$, we.

 $B\bar{a}$, thou, also occurs in the meaning 'you.' A similar form ba-mi, thou, is found in the Lyng-ngam dialect of Khassi. Another pronoun of the second person occurs in do-goio, of thee. $J\ddot{o}$, $j\ddot{o}$ -e or ze, you, is also written jah. Jah-phu occurs with the meaning 'thou.'

The personal pronoun of the third person is originally a demonstrative pronoun, and other demonstratives such as $f\ddot{o}$ and $h\acute{a}$ may be used in the same way. In the plural we find $ng\ddot{a}$ and $n\ddot{a}$, which may be added to other demonstratives; thus, $f\ddot{o}$ - $n\ddot{a}$, $h\acute{a}$ - $n\ddot{a}$, they, and probably also b'gou- $n\ddot{a}$ (Hesselmeyer), they; compare $n\acute{a}$ $\ddot{a}u$ bugia e-m-sa-na ngya ga re-da, my father that small house in lives; $h\acute{a}$ $n\ddot{a}$ goyo $bog\bar{o}$ pheye u-m-do- $d\ddot{a}$, that soil from this more good-is, this soil is better than that. B'gou, bu-gia, or bo- $g\ddot{o}$ thus seems to be a demonstrative pronoun pointing to something in sight. Rasa, their, only occurs in the list. A pronoun du, he, she, it, seems to occur in forms such as du-ge, him-to; du-se, him-with.

The personal pronouns are combined with the usual case suffixes; thus, $ng\hat{a}$ -ge, in, of me; ba-chhi, of thee; $j\ddot{o}$ -goio, from you, of you, etc. From sai, that, he, we find seiya and saio, his.

Demonstrative pronouns are sai, this, that; $bo-g\bar{o}$, that (near); $pf\bar{o}$, $f\bar{o}$, be, that; $h\hat{a}$, that; khai, that. In the plural $n\bar{a}$ is added; thus, $h\hat{a}-n\bar{a}$, those.

There are no relative pronouns. Relative participles are formed by adding the suffix na; thus, kheri-seu-na sau, younger-being son, the son who was youngest.

Demonstrative pronouns are often used as a kind of correlative; thus, ke dedue seioh ge u-phou sei lai-neh seh, cloth all those of good-more that taking put on, bring the best cloth and put it on him.

Interrogative pronouns are juah, zu, or ze, i.e., probably zü or zö, who? han, ha, or haniah, what? han-do, why? ki-nia or khi-nia, how much? how many?

Verbs.—Verbs do not change for gender, number, and person.

The usual verb substantive is du, $d\tilde{a}$, or $d\tilde{a}$. Compare the corresponding forms in Miri and connected languages. This verb is frequently used as an auxiliary verb, as is also the case in Daflā, Miri, and Mishmi.

Present time.—The root alone is often used without any suffix. Thus, chhi khu-gù riù, fish water-in live, fishes live in the water.

A, e, and i, all probably different spellings of a verb substantive, are often added; thus, i du-a (Hesselmeyer), he is; ba gu-eh, thou strikest; khùsù sherie tsā-i (Anderson), goat grass eats, the goat eats grass. We is sometimes used instead of e; thus, ná niù lùkshù grā-dā-we, my house's roof rotten-is; masù nā rù-jo-we, birds they fly. I cannot decide whether the w is cuphonic or whether we is the fuller form. Compare Burmese $\bar{\imath}$, Kachin ai; Kuki-Chin \bar{a} , e, and ai; Nāgā e and we, and so on.

Ni or ne, probably another verb substantive, is often used in the same way; thus, nah gi-neh, i.e. ná gü-ne, I strike; nah guin, i.e. ná gü-n(i), I am striking. A or e is sometimes added to this ni; thus, ba ni-ni han che-niā, thy name what call? what is thy name? ná khā-nie, I go.

A suffix $b\bar{\imath}$, be, or bueh, i.e., probably $b\bar{u}$, is often used in the present tense. Thus, ba $kh\bar{a}$ -bueh, thou goest; $n\bar{a}$ $g\bar{u}$ -m- $b\bar{\imath}$ (Hesselmeyer), I strike; nah kha-ne-be, I go. This suffix is probably identical with Tibetan pa, ba. The m in $g\bar{u}$ -m- $b\bar{\imath}$ is perhaps an assertive or participial suffix.

Chho or chha occurs in forms such as ni du-chho, we are; na du-chha-y-a, they are. The $m\bar{a}$ in ba du-cha- $m\bar{a}$, thou art, should be compared with Róng ma, and similar suffixes in connected dialects. Compare the m in $g\bar{u}$ -m- $b\bar{i}$, above.

The verb substantive du, $d\acute{a}$ or $d\ddot{a}$ is often used as an auxiliary. Thus, i $ph\ddot{u}m$ $n\ddot{a}$ - $d\ddot{a}$, his wife is ill; re- $d\ddot{a}$, he is sitting; e gi-da-eh, he strikes; rawkhri-da-ya, he is tending; chha-due thu-deu annia-du, to-eat to-drink much-is, there is plenty of food. M is often prefixed; thus, $b\ddot{a}$ si-liù $h\acute{a}$ -we $n\acute{a}$ si-liù $n\acute{a}$ - $n\acute{a}$ si- $n\acute{a}$ si- $n\acute{a}$ - $n\acute{a}$ si- $n\acute{a}$ - $n\acute{a}$ si- $n\acute{a}$ - $n\acute{$

The corresponding form of the verb substantive is $d\hat{a}-d\hat{a}$, etc., and this form is also used in order to form a periphrastic present. Thus, $si-ch\hat{u}$ $h\hat{a}-n\bar{a}$ $kh\hat{u}s\hat{u}$ $\bar{a}-nye$ $s\bar{a}-m-d\hat{a}-d\hat{a}$, tiger they goat many eat, tigers eat goats; $h\hat{a}$ $nenn\bar{a}$ $z\hat{u}-\bar{a}n-d\bar{a}-d\hat{a}$, that man to-die-preparing-is, the man is dying.

De in $ng\bar{a}h$ kha-de-be, they go, is probably identical with $d\hat{a}$, etc.

Past time.—There is no marked difference between the present and past times. The root alone is also used to denote the past; thus, e ná shiù, i.e., shü, him I struck; e ná mā shū, him I not struck.

Ni or ne occurs in forms such as che-ne, he said; ná di-n, I went; ná gùing, I struck, and so on.

Bi is very often used in the past tense; thus, $n\tilde{a}$ $n\tilde{a}$ -i $\underline{kh}u$ me ji-m-bie, I them-to water some gave; la-le-de-bi, he joined; ni kha-m-bi, we went; kha- $\underline{kh}u$ -da-bi, he went.

The suffix m in ji-m-bi-e, gave, is also used in connexion with other suffixes; thus, i du-me-re-de, he was; la-khe-ri-me-re-de, he gathered; kha-ri-meh-re-ze, he divided. Me and meh in these forms is probably identical with m. We find this suffix used alone in forms such as ma-kha-meh, he did not enter; $h\bar{a}$ -deo di-m- $v\bar{o}$, why came-interrogative-particle, why have you come? The $m\bar{a}$ in forms such as ba di- $m\bar{a}$, thou wentest; jah $khamm\bar{a}$, you went, is perhaps the same suffix.

The chu in nah du-chu, they were, is probably connected with the suffix $ch\bar{o}$, $ch\bar{u}$ in Dārmiyā, etc. In phu-e du-chun, I was, it has been combined with n(i). Jah-phu du-chha-mā, thou wast, should be compared with du-cha-mā, art. The form nah gui-chhua, I was striking, I had struck, seems to show that the suffix is not chu but chō or chū. Mr. Hesselmeyer gives sō and se; thus, ná du-sō, I was; ná khab-se, I went. Compare Dārmiyā sō.

The verb substantive is used in forms such as $i \, sda$, i.e. $i \, sh\ddot{u} \cdot d\ddot{a}$, he struck; jah $ish \cdot da$, you struck; $ngah \, kha \cdot de \cdot bi$, they went. $Gri \cdot dain$, he has married, probably contains the verb dau or deu, to make.

A suffix lai occurs in forms such as nennā phie-nā dī-lai, men those came, the men have come; sei-khe-lain, he smelt, he kissed; ba-lain, he asked (?); bah bangin dau-da-lain, thou feast madest.

The suffix of the **Future** is *nie* or *nye*, also written *nyā*. Thus, *na gū-nie*, I shall strike; e nā shi-nyā, him I strike-will. Ne is often used instead, and this form is probably identical with the corresponding form for the present and past times. Thus, ngah vol. III, PART I.

sne, i.e. nā shū-ne, they will strike. Bi may be added; thus, kha-ne-bi, I will go; sip-zeu-sip-zi-ne-bi, we will be merry and glad, let us make merry.

Another suffix of the future is ve; thus, chha-veh, I will say; ba sheue, i.e. ba shu-ve, thou wilt strike. Compare present.

The root alone is also used as an **Imperative**. Thus, $khu-niù d\bar{\imath}$, quickly come; shù me jiù, firewood some bring; la, take. A suffix e, we, or bueh is often added; thus, $z\bar{a}r\bar{a}$ $d\bar{a}$ -we, rice cook; age-lao-y-e, take; cha-bueh, eat.

In gi-gueh, strike, the root is apparently reduplicated.

A suffix chhe occurs in la-chhe, take.

A prefix bi, be, $b\ddot{u}$, or ve occurs in several forms; thus, bi-di- $b\bar{\imath}$, go; be- $shi\grave{\imath}$, strike; $b\ddot{u}$ - $dz\ddot{u}$ - $b\ddot{\imath}$, die; ve-tchu, give. It will be seen that it is sometimes combined with a suffix $b\ddot{\imath}$. In $n\acute{a}$ be- $sh\ddot{\imath}$ - $sh\grave{\imath}$ - $b\grave{\iota}$, me strike, this suffix has taken the form $b\grave{\imath}$, the preceding $sh\grave{\imath}$ probably corresponding to the reflective particle $sh\ddot{\imath}$ in Daflā and Miri.

A suffix in occurs in plural forms such as leh-in and da-in, put ye.

The root alone is also used as a **Verbal noun**. Thus, há phurdie lā-le-niù siunī siū di-we, that axe taking tree to-cut go; ī sùrù lā-le-niù masù biū di-dye, he gun taking bird to-shoot went.

A suffix deu or due, probably derived from the verb deu or dau, to do, is used in the parable in forms such as sa-deu, to eat; rukri-deu, to tend; bjiva-deu, dancing (?); thu-mah-da-deu, to feast. It is probably identical with du in thaddu, food.

A suffix bu occurs in forms such as sibji-de-bu, to make merry; che-bue, to call. Gi-phi-neh, to strike, seems to contain another suffix phi of the future tense. The same form is also translated 'I may beat' in the list. Mr. Anderson has $n\hat{a}$ $didji\hat{u}$ $d\hat{a}\text{-}ph\bar{i}$ $z\hat{u}\text{-}b\bar{a}\text{-}ni\hat{u}$, I work to-do understand.

Participles.—The relative participle has been mentioned with relative pronouns. Viddeu, a cultivator, and kishi-rakkhru, a goat-tender, are nouns of agency, and seem to contain a suffix u. Another suffix ba occurs in $dokh\bar{a}n-ba$, a shopkeeper; compare the Tibetan article pa, ba.

Adverbial participles are apparently formed by adding di-neh; thus, u-di-neh, well; kho-lo-di-neh, as a servant. The real suffix is probably neh, nya, or nya; compare khu-nya or khu-nya quickly. In the Parable we find khu-tho-neh, quickly, containing a suffix tho which is probably identical with the suffix di in u-di-neh, well. Compare deu or dau, to do.

The suffix $ni\ddot{u}$ is also used in order to form a conjunctive participle. It has been written in various ways, as $ny\grave{u}$, niya, neh, etc. Thus, $n\acute{a}$ bazār goy \grave{u} di- $ny\grave{u}$ álg \grave{u} lālien. I bazaar from going rice brought; $h\acute{a}$ giu há-e dokhān-ba goyu phù- $ni\grave{u}$ lālien, that cloth that shopkeeper from buying brought, I bought that cloth from a shopkeeper; zuiya phu-niya la-vah, whom-from buying took, from whom did you buy it? dinneh, having come out; zi-niah, having died.

Le is often prefixed to $ni\ddot{u}$; thus, $l\bar{a}$ -le- $ni\dot{u}$, having taken, with; gi-le-neh, having struck; kha-thi-le-neh, having gone; khu-zu-linge, having arisen.

Leh is sometimes used in the same way; thus, ma-hou-ze-chi-leh, having been lost; khakh-leh, having gone, again.

Nyü and le are probably identical with the Tibetan suffixes nas and lus.

Other participles are che-da-re, having said; kha-me-bi, gone; khá-khu-me, having seen; dī-phi-li, having gone, etc.

Many Compound verbs occur, but I have not been able to analyse them. Chi or thi seems to intensify the meaning; thus, kha-thi-le-neh, having gone; ma-hou-ze-chi-leh, having been lost. It is perhaps, however, only a suffix of the past.

<u>Kh</u>u is added in many verbs; thus, <u>kh</u>a-<u>kh</u>u, to go; <u>kh</u>o-<u>kh</u>u, to see; ma-cha-<u>kh</u>u, did not eat, and so forth. It does not seem to add anything to the meaning.

Mr. Anderson gives $shi\bar{u}$, i.e. $sh\ddot{u}$, to kill, which is a causal of $dz\ddot{u}$, to die. It corresponds to Tibetan causals after the type intransitive initial g, causative kh.

There is no **Passive voice**. Nah gi-dah, i.e. ná gü-dā, I am struck, literally means my striking-is; nah singeh bua, I shall be struck, seems to be miswritten for ná shū-neüa, me (he) will-strike. I do not understand suyā in nah gidah suyā, I was struck.
It probably means 'then'; compare khe-yā, when?

The **Negative particle** is a prefixed $m\bar{a}$ or m; thus, e $n\acute{a}$ $m\bar{a}$ - $sh\ddot{u}$, him I not struck; $m\bar{a}$ -dzi, gavest-not; mikzeu, bad. N is substituted for m in nkzeu, bad; compare Pronunciation.

The Interrogative particles are vo, va, ba, or bha, and $m\bar{a}$; thus, $b\bar{a}$ $b\bar{u}$ $h\bar{a}n$ $vie-d\bar{a}$ -vo, thy mind what thinking-is? zuiya phu-niya la-vah, whom-from being took, from whom did you buy it? phu- $gr\bar{a}$ adiat ki-nia-ba, horse old how-much, how old is this horse? khai ha-da-rin-bha, that what-is? $l\bar{u}j\bar{u}$ $s\bar{a}$ - $m\bar{a}$, breakfast ate, have you eaten breakfast? The interrogative particle is often dropped when the sentence contains an interrogative pronoun. Thus, ba ni-ni han che-ni-a, thy name what say, what is your name?

The usual order of words is subject, object, verb.

[No. I.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. NORTH ASSAM GROUP

AKA.

(The Rev. Russel Payne, 1900.)

(DARRANG.)

kshe. Khe-ri-seu-na Ni-nā ā sei-ya mu-khu sa seigh sau Man childs one him-to male two.Younger-being son hiseioi ' chhuin. 'āu-wā, ba bo-lo-kho no-je (i.e. nâ-chhi) bo-dau sei 'father-O, thy father-to my said.goods-of share thatno Taleneh bo-de-lo-kho-de khari-meh-re-ze namkhor-se. Khe-ri-sa-pho me give.' Then divided goodsthem-to. Younger-son seih bo-lo-kho i la-khe-ri-me-re-de, utka la-khe-ri-le-neh e-ra-geh ne-theu thathe gathered, all(?) collected-having qoods far country kha-thi-le-neh ta-le-neh seiyah nenna mikzeu na bo-se-nāh hā then bad them joining(?) property (?) one-to gone-having theremen sai khazin. Ta-le-neh seivah utka khats-me-re-deh sei ne-thu sei Then that squandered. there all(?)squanderedthatcountry thát ma-theu-ma-bho di-ne. Sei sa-deu thu-deu ma-theu-ma-bho di-ne. Sei in-want He eat-to became. drink-to wanting became. That gne-theu abrew noko-essa-mi ā-khā-sā la-le-de-bi. du-se Sei bho country in rich-man one him-with joined. Hispigs rukri-deu-se khak-din. Sei bho-na thaddu e-ttheu-e-khu sei sa-ngeh tend-to go-made. He pigsfood(?)husksthateat-would ta-ha-li-na ma-sak-deh. Seiah itchhe daukhein, seioh i-tchin, 'seigh ou but not-ate-even. Then thought then he-said, 'there father's(?) made, titu chha-due thu-deu ania[.] annia du. nah i ma-cha-khu. Ya servants(?) many eat-to drink-to much-is, I here hunger. Now nah etthi kha-ne-bi gna e-ni-ge dinna āu-i chha-veh. Ι father him-of near go-will I(?)going(?)father-to say-will. "āu-ah. nah aioh osra i-vra sei nah nkzeu da-da: nah "father-O, I. father heaven(?) before there I evildid:I ngah che-bue aiah-nah ba-seu deu ma-da-phi; noi ba gneu thy-son me call-to now-as more(?)not-worthy; me thu house la."' Se-nah che-da-re ku-zu-linge kho-lo-di-ne itchh-ge khahin. iv-au servant-as keep." Thus saying arising(?)his-father him-of-to went. E-ra-geh re-da sei ey-eu i kho-khuin. kho-khu-li-neh nilvo-di-ne, Far was then his-father him saw. seeing loved. nilvo-ve-le-neh lu-khro-neh khu-tho-neh jeh-zeu sei enro ivah lovina pituina quickly ran his neck that-on sei-khe-lain. Sci e-sou i chhain. 'āu-āh. ba-theu e-ni-siai nah. smelt (kissed). That his-son him said, 'father-O, thy T eye-in

ngeh chem-jeh ba ne-thi ungo ma-da-ni.' ba-seu lāla dahing, ivah to-call thou not-proper-is. and thy-son me sin did.'ke sapse-khiri-ni che-ne. de-due seioh-ge Kina-di-neh aiyeu his-father servants-to said. 'cloths allthem-among But ekji-ze githleh lehin. eksi lai-neh seh. sei u-phou sei put, his-foot bringing put-on, his-finger that-on ring that good-more chha-le-neh ge-deh sitha da-in; ivah thu-le-neh sip-zeu-sip-zi-ne-bi; drinking merry-be-let-us; on-also shoes put; now eating ze-le-neh, khak-leh chhe-neh; ma-hou-ze-chi-leh. seivah sei āngāsā seih died-having, nowagain alive-is: he lost-being. childthissibji-de-bu da-da-bi. nah chhe-da-bi.' Syah they to-make-merry began. Then found-again.'

mo-kau-sei pathari geioh kha-khu-da-bi. Sei i Sei e-sou went. Then elder-that fieldsfrom he Then his-son i sedu gneh e-theu kha-khu-da-bi seioh bjiva-deu khaueh went then hemusic(?)dancing towards house camesapse-za-ne-na-vi balain, 'khai ha. i di-khu-lei-neh, seioh called, this anhat poor-man (a servant) he then hearing, 'seioh ba seu-na-keu sai da-rin-bha?' Seioh i du-ge chhe, he said. 'there thy brother is-being-done?' Then he him-to geuah.' Seioh i lu-chhvi-neh radz-ni zara hou î kha-khu-da-bi, rejoicing rice gave. Then he angry-being he thy-father has-come. dinneh kakati-daneh eiveu kho-le-neh ni-geh ma-kha-meh; sei his-father coming to-enter seeing house-in not-entered; that 'kho-soueh, nah anioah erra chi-chuin, Seioh aivao-ih ngeh-sleain. I look. many years his-father-to said, Then entreated(?). chera daueh ngeh-sleain, ba anioah ba nui reukhin ma-kha-khu-ru entreated(?), do thy many observedthou work me not-departing(?) ma-dai-neh. Tam-deh ba nui ukhun ma-zu sidabu-seh bah not-did. Nevertheless thou me disobey command thu years(?)den-iaidk-ijdus dākha. ja nai nah nah ā-deh ma-dzi khisi-sah to-make-merry. not-gavest goat-young one-even kha-khu-neh nu-deh dau-khu-lenge seioh aineah khau, seih Ivah eseu done-having then neargoing came. thisNow the-son itchhin, 'sau, dau-da-lain.' Seioh i kseu-deu seseioh-i bangin hah And said, Son. always madest.' he feast(?) him-for(?) thou ba-tchi-khoa; du khai na-sam anioah iah nau-thiai ren. ha. thine; that**i**8 my-property as-much noro me-with art. thou ha-seu Han-deu? zi-niah. ve-dah. thu-mah-da-deu ngi-phu thy-brother Why? died-having. proper-is. to-feast **10**8 la-chhu-m-bi.' khakh-leh chhe-m-bi; ba thou foundest-again.' alive-is; again

ABOR-MIRI, AND DAFLA.

Abor, Miri, and Dafiā are Assamese names for a tribe which inhabits the mountains between the Assam Valley and Tibet. Many of them, especially of the Miris, are now settled within British territory, in Lakhimpur, Sibsagar, and Darrang.

The tribe has a strong Mongolian type, especially the Abors, who have only in late time begun to settle within British territory.

The Abors occupy the mountains to the north of Sadiya about the Dihang and Dibang rivers. They are apparently a numerous tribe. Mr. Needham remarks that we know of some 20,000, and that we are aware that there are very many more to the north again of those we know of. In British territory there were only some 170 Abors in the Lakhimpur district reported during the preliminary operations of this survey. The corresponding figure at the last Census of 1901 was 357.

The Abors are subdivided into numerous clans or minor tribes. They are at present blockaded by the English, and we have no communication with them.

The Abor dialect is almost identical with Miri. The Pāsī and Mīnyōngs, two other numerous tribes inhabiting the hills on the right bank of the Dihang, also speak the same language. No separate specimens have been given. A list of standard words and phrases in Abor, so far as this dialect differs from Miri, has been kindly prepared by Mr. J. F. Needham and has been printed after the Miri list.

The Miris occupy the hills to the west of the Abors and extend to about 94° north latitude. They have also been settled in the Assam Valley for a long time. They were pushed down by the Abors, and these Miris are generally believed to have been slaves to that tribe. In the Assam Valley they were conquered by the Ahoms.

According to Mr. Needham, the Miris who reside on the banks of the Brahmaputra, Dihang, and Dibang rivers, in the neighbourhood of Sadiya, call themselves Mishing, and are of the Shaiyāng, Oiyān, Chūtīya, Dāmbūk, and Shōmwāng clans, each of which is divided into numerous sub-divisions. *Mī-shing* means 'a Shing man,' and is identical with nyī-sing which name the Daflās use to denote themselves.

The Assamese Miris are now found in Darrang, Nowgong, and, above all, in Sibsagar and Lakhimpur. Their numbers are returned as follows:—

												Census of 1891.	Census of 1901.
Kamrup		•	•	•			•	•	•		•		1
Darrang	•	•			•							2,500	3,471
Nowgong	•		•		•	•		•	•			60	1
Sibsagar			•			•		•		•	4.	14,100	14,752
Lakbimpur	•	٠.	•	•	•	•			•	•		18,850	22,247
									To	TAL	•	35,510	40,472

In Darrang they are found in the eastern part of the district, in villages on the Bhareli river, and to the east of it. In Sibsagar Miri is spoken in the north-west corner,

opposite Lakhimpur. In Lakhimpur we find the tribe in the north-east corner and on the north bank of the Brahmaputra.

I am indebted to Mr. J. F. Needham for two specimens and a list of standard words and phrases in the dialect spoken by the Shaiyang clan. With regard to the other clans no specimens have been available. So far as we know, however, all Miris practically speak the same language.

The Daflās occupy the hills to the west of the Miris. Sir William Robinson, in his notes on the Daflās, states that they extend from 92° 50′ to about 94° north latitude. They have, in later times, also settled in British territory, in Darrang and Lakhimpur. We find them in the eastern part of the Darrang district, in villages on the Bhareli river, and to the east of it, and in the west of Lakhimpur, on the Darrang border, north of the Brahmaputra.

The numbers of Daflas within British territory at the Census of 1891 were as follows:—

Darrang	•		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		•	200
Lakhimpur	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	.•	•	•	•	•	790
												To	TAL		990.

The corresponding total at the last Census of 1901 was 805, of whom 403 were enumerated in Darrang and 395 in Lakhimpur.

The Daflas of Lakhimpur call themselves Nyī-sing, i.e., 'Sing-men.' Mr. Robinson states that the Daflas call themselves $B\bar{a}ngni$. The dialect described by him is, according to Mr. Hamilton, probably that spoken at Helem or Behali, in the Darrang district.

The Daflas are subdivided into numerous clans, and several dialects seem to exist. The western form of speech is apparently widely different from that used in the east, but our information is limited to a few words given by Mr. Hamilton as an appendix to his grammar.

The two specimens of Dafla printed below have been taken from Mr. Hamilton's grammar. The list of words is due to Mr. H. N. Colquhoun, I.C.S., but has been altered so as to agree with the forms given by Mr. Hamilton.

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- Dalton, Lieut. J. T. E.,—On the Meris and Abors of Assam. Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. xiv, Part i, 1845, pp. 426 and ff.
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- Hodgson, B. H.,—On the Aborigines of the Eastern Frontier. Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. xviii, Part ii, 1849, pp. 967 and ff. Reprinted in Miscellaneous Essays relating to Indian Subjects. Vol. ii, London, 1880, pp. 19 and ff. Contains Abor and Miri vocabularies by the Rev. N. Brown.
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- STACK, E.,—Report on the Census of Assam for 1881. Calcutta, 1883. Account of Miris, Daphlás, and Abors on pp. 86 and ff. by E. S.
- NEEDHAM, J. F.,—Outline Grammar of the Shai'yang Miri Language as spoken by the Miris of that Clan residing in the neighbourhood of Sadiya. With illustrative sentences, phrase-book and vocabulary. Shillong, 1886.
- GAIT, E. A.,—Census of India, 1891. Assam. Vol. I.—Report. Shillong, 1892. Note on Abor, Miri, and Daflá on pp. 183 and f.; note on the tribes on pp. 221 and f.
- Hamilton, R. C.,—An Outline Grammar of the Dafla Language as spoken by the Tribes immediately south of the Apa Tanang Country. Shillong, 1900.

The dialects spoken by the Miris and the Daflas are so closely connected that they may be considered as one and the same language. I have therefore made a combined sketch of the grammatical features of both, dealing with them in parallel columns where the difference between them is so great that their description cannot be combined without incurring the risk of obscurity. The materials which I have used are as follows:—

The sketch of Miri grammar is based on Mr. Needham's grammar of Shaiyāng Miri. With regard to Daflā, I have analysed the forms occurring in Mr. Hamilton's hand-book so far as I have been able to do so, and based my sketch on this analysis. I have drawn attention to the instances where the Daflā dialect described by Mr. Robinson differs. Mr. Hamilton's Daflā is the dialect spoken beyond British territory to the north of North Lakhimpur town. The dialect described by Mr. Robinson is stated to be spoken in Darrang. For details the student is referred to the grammars just quoted.

Pronunciation.—Miri and Daflā abound in vowels. Thus we find a, e, i, o, and u, short and long, and besides these \acute{a} , the sound of a in English 'all,' and \ddot{u} , the sound of \ddot{u} in German 'Mühe.' Miri also seems to possess the vowel \ddot{o} , the sound of \ddot{o} in German 'schön,' in the word which Mr. Needham spells inqua, what? The sound of qua in inqua, he says, is almost like that of qui in English 'quirk.' I have therefore written $in-kw\ddot{o}$.

There is apparently often an interchange between long and short vowels. Thus, we find Miri ma-ta and $m\bar{a}-t\bar{a}$, search; $k\bar{e}-m\bar{o}$, and $ke-m\bar{o}$, dark, etc. Mr. Hamilton remarks that the interchange between long and short vowels largely depends on the cadence of the sentence.

The pronunciation of vowels is apparently sometimes, especially in unaccented syllables, rather indistinct, and there are several instances of interchange between different vowels.

Miri:

A and e are interchangeable in unaccented syllables. Thus we find the locative suffix written ma and me, and the suffix of the ablative is lok-ka and lok-ke.

Daflā:-

A and e are sometimes interchanged. Thus, sa-ta te-na, elephant female; nyemm, woman, probably from nyī, a human being; dá-dna and dá-dne, is, etc.

A and \ddot{u} both occur in \bar{a} -na and \tilde{a} -n \ddot{u} , mother.

 \vec{A} seems to be interchangeable with \vec{u} and \vec{a} in the verb substantive, which occurs in the forms $d\vec{a}k$, $d\vec{a}ng$, $d\vec{u}ng$, $d\vec{u}$, and $d\vec{a}$.

The vowers \tilde{a} and \bar{o} are often interchanged; thus, \bar{a} - $k\tilde{a}$, and \bar{a} - $k\bar{o}$, a, one; $g\tilde{a}g$ - $l\tilde{a}$, calling; $g\bar{o}k$ - $t\bar{o}$, called, etc.

 \bar{O} is interchangeable with au in \bar{o} -ma, daughter, from au, child. \bar{U} is substituted for \bar{o} before ai in the suffix $t\bar{u}$ -ai; thus, $k\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{o}$, and $k\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{u}$ -ai, saw.

The diphthong ui is sometimes pronounced $u\bar{\imath}$ and also \ddot{u} ; thus, mui, $mu\bar{\imath}$, and $m\ddot{u}$, to wish. It is sometimes replaced by \bar{u} , thus, bui, he; $b\bar{u}$ - $l\bar{u}$, they; $m\bar{u}m$ -buir and muim-buir, a young woman. $U\bar{\imath}$ seems to be substituted for a final \ddot{u} when a vowel follows; thus, $g\bar{\imath}$ - $p\ddot{u}$, he will go; $g\bar{\imath}$ -pui- \bar{a} , will he go?

Many of these changes are apparently the result of a kind of sandhi. There are also some traces of a kind of 'harmonic sequence.' Thus, the particle $k\ddot{u}$ which often occurs after the future suffix $p\ddot{u}$ is probably identical with the affirmative particle $k\ddot{u}$. Instances are $b\ddot{u}$ - $l\ddot{u}$ $n\ddot{o}m$ $p\ddot{a}$ - $p\ddot{u}$ - $k\ddot{u}$, they you strike-will; bet- $p\ddot{u}$ - $k\ddot{u}$, it will break. Compare bui $g\ddot{\imath}$ - $k\ddot{a}ng$ - $k\ddot{u}$, he has departed.

A short vowel in an unaccented syllable is sometimes dropped; thus, $k\bar{a}-p\bar{i}'-k\bar{a}-n$ $ng\hat{a}-l\bar{u}-ka$ $\bar{e}-k\bar{u}m-l\hat{a}$, what-is our house-in? bui $k\bar{a}-p\bar{u}$ $\bar{i}'-t\bar{o}-n$, he how did? how did he do it? In these instances the interrogative particle na has been abbreviated to n. The accent rests on the penultimate, or, if the interrogative particle be reckoned as a syllable, on the antepenultimate. Compare the accent in $n\hat{a}-ka$ $\bar{a}-mik$ da $k\bar{a}-p\bar{i}-k\bar{a}'-na$, your eyes they what-is? what is the matter with your eyes? $n\hat{a}$ $k\bar{a}-p\bar{i}-l\bar{a}$ $\bar{i}-t\bar{o}'-na$, you why did? why did you do it? In the last two instances the accent

 \bar{A} , \bar{u} , and \bar{u} all occur in the verb \bar{u} , to go; thus, \bar{a} -tla, coming; \bar{u} -nna, went; \bar{u} -ly $\bar{a}m$, on coming.

 \hat{A} and o are often interchanged; thus $h\hat{a}$ -b and ho-b, for; $h\hat{a}kka$ and hokka, from, etc.

Ui and o are sometimes interchanged; thus, bor, younger brother; buir-ma, younger sister.

In many cases there seems to be a kind of assimilation between the vowels of neighbouring syllables. Thus, le-kin, time-one; $l\bar{\imath}-nyi$, times-two; $l\bar{\imath}-\bar{\imath}m$, times-three, etc. The $\ddot{\imath}$ in $\ddot{\imath}$ ly $\ddot{\imath}m$, going, from $\ddot{\imath}$ -dba, to go, is perhaps due to such an assimilation. It may, however, be due to a contraction of $\ddot{\imath}$ and $\dot{\imath}$, an $\dot{\imath}$ being usually prefixed to ly.

Short final vowels are often dropped. Thus the final a in the male suffix ba and the female suffix na. Compare $\bar{\imath}-k\bar{\imath}$ $k\bar{\imath}-b$, dog male; $\bar{\imath}-k\bar{\imath}$ $k\bar{\imath}-n$, a bitch; but sa-ta ta-ba, a he elephant; sa-ta ten-na, a she elephant. Other instances of dropping of the final vowel are $m\ddot{u}-g$ and $m\ddot{u}-ga$, his; $ng\ddot{a}-l$ and $ng\dot{a}-lu$, we, etc. Even long vowels are often dropped; thus, $k\bar{u}$ and k, again; $ezz\bar{\imath}$ and ezz, cloth, etc.

rests on the syllable immediately preceding na, and a is not dropped.

The e of the accusative suffix em is often dropped when added to a pronoun ending in a vowel. Thus, bui-m, him; $b\bar{u}$ - $l\bar{u}$ -m, them; sim, this; dem, that, etc. The form dem is probably formed from a theme $d\bar{e}$ which occurs in $d\bar{e}$ - $p\bar{z}$ - $i\bar{a}$, therefore, etc., and not directly from da, that.

In other cases the hiatus remains; thus, \bar{a} - $b\bar{u}$ -em, the father; $m\bar{i}$ -ma-em, a woman, etc. In le-m- $\bar{u}m$ - $k\hat{a}$, three times, a euphonic m is inserted between the two yowels.

Final consonants are sometimes silent; thus, ōid, high; ōi-yā, higher; gád and $g\hat{a}$, disinclined; $s\bar{\imath}t$ and $s\bar{\imath}$, die; $m\bar{a}k$ - $b\bar{o}$, brother-in-law; $m\bar{a}$ - $m\bar{o}$; sister-in-law. Final ng has apparently a rather faint sound and is often dropped; thus, dá-lūng and $d\hat{a}$ - $l\hat{u}$, village; $\tilde{a}ng$ and \tilde{a} , come, etc. It is apparently freely added after a final long vowel; thus, jūtāng, shoe, from Hindī jūtā; rūng and rū, very; pāngne, female slave, but pāk-bō, male slave; $d\bar{u}$ - $t\bar{a}k$, a year, but $t\bar{a}ng$ - $ny\bar{\imath}$ - $k\hat{a}$, two years, etc. In the two last instances pang-ne and tang-nyī-ka, ng is perhaps directly derived from k before the following n, and not merely added after the dropping of k.

Hard and soft consonants are sometimes interchanged; thus, $g\bar{a}g$ - $m\bar{o}$ -to- $k\bar{a}$, let him eatch, from $g\bar{a}k$, to catch; gdg- $l\bar{a}$, calling, from $g\bar{a}k$, to call; $d\bar{a}g$ -ai, was, from $d\bar{a}k$, to be; $\bar{a}b$ - $d\hat{a}$ -dem, shooting, from $\bar{a}p$, to shoot; po- $r\bar{o}k$ $r\bar{o}k$ -pa, fowl male, a male fowl, but $sh\bar{a}$ -ben ben- $b\bar{a}$, a he-goat. In such cases the interchange between hard and soft consonants is due to a kind of assimilation to the surrounding sounds.

L and n are sometimes interchanged; thus, em-nā, saying; lāng-kūm-lā, gathering. The suffixes lā and nā in these instances apparently correspond to Tibetan las, nas, respectively.

The a of the accusative suffix am is usually dropped when added to pronouns ending in a vowel. Thus, $h\bar{a}m$, that; $ng\bar{a}m$, me, etc. Compare bor-am, the younger brother; $ny\bar{\imath}-am$, the man, etc.

The consonants seem to be distinctly sounded. In comparing Mr. Robinson's Daflā with that described by Mr. Hamilton, it will, however, be seen that a final consonant has sometimes been dropped. Thus, Hamilton \bar{a} - $l\bar{a}$, Robinson $l\bar{a}k$, hand; Hamilton a-nyi, Robinson $ny\bar{u}k$, eye; Hamilton \bar{a} , Robinson $\bar{a}ng$, go, etc.

The consonant h in Mr. Hamilton's grammar is apparently often very indistinctly sounded. Thus, the suffix of the locative is given as $h\tilde{a}$, but is probably \tilde{a} ; compare au-w-d, top-on. The suffix of the nominative is usually a, but is also often written ha; the numeral 'three' occurs as hom- $g\tilde{a}$ and om- $g\tilde{a}$, etc.

Hard and soft consonants are sometimes interchanged; thus, $\bar{\imath}$ - $k\bar{\imath}$ - $k\bar{\imath}$ -b, dog male; porá ro-p, fowl male; jem-pl and chem-pl, forty, etc.

N and m are occasionally interchanged; thus, chen-dna, he knows; chem- $m\bar{a}$, he does not know. There seems to be, in such cases, a kind of assimilation. Daflā n often corresponds to Miri m; thus, Daflā $ny\bar{z}$, Miri \bar{a} - $m\bar{z}$, man, etc.

L and n are occasionally interchanged; thus, $m\bar{u}$ - $l\bar{u}$, thinking; \bar{u} -k-na, coming back. Compare however the Tibetan suffixes las and nas.

B is substituted for v in $b\bar{e}$ - $l\bar{a}b$ - $d\bar{u}ng$, it is slippery, from $b\bar{e}$ - $l\bar{a}v$, slippery; $t\bar{a}t$ -beg, hear-can, from veg, can, etc. The preceding or following sound is in both cases a surd consonant.

L, m, and n are often doubled. Thus, $n\bar{u}$ - $l\bar{a}$ -ella, taking away; nyemm, i.e. $ny\bar{i}$ -ma, a woman; $\bar{a}p$ -denna, i.e. $\bar{a}p$, de, and the suffix na, etc.

Ly has apparently a sound corresponding to that of ll in French 'ailleurs.' This sound is often written ily by Mr. Hamilton. Thus, $n\hat{a}$ $\bar{u}mm\bar{a}$, thou wentestnot, but $n\hat{a}$ $\bar{u}mmai-ly\bar{e}$, didst thou not go? $k\bar{a}$ - $ily\bar{a}$ - $t\hat{a}$, tend; $\bar{u}ly\bar{a}m$, i.e. perhaps \bar{u} - $ily\bar{a}m$, coming, etc.

The accent usually rests on the penultimate. There are, however, several exceptions. For details the student is referred to the grammars of Messrs. Needham and Hamilton. There is apparently much more change in the accentuation in Dafiā than in Miri.

Tones.—Miri is said to abound in tones, but no attempt has ever been made to describe them. We have no information about tones in Daflā.

Prefixes.—Most Miri words consist of two or more syllables. Monosyllables such as $\bar{\imath}$, a bow; $k\bar{o}$, a child; $y\hat{a}$, a night, are comparatively rare. In Daflā monosyllable words are much more common, though they, in some cases, are only apparently monosyllables, a final vowel having been dropped, as in $\bar{a}b$ from \bar{a} -bo, a father. Miri and Daflā agree in using otiose prefixes. The most common prefix of this kind seems to be a or \bar{a} , used before nouns and adjectives. Thus, Miri \bar{a} - $b\bar{u}$, father; \bar{a} - $n\bar{u}$, mother; \bar{a} - $l\bar{a}k$, hand; \bar{a} -bi, belly; \bar{a} -si, water; \bar{a} -pui, all; \bar{a} - $n\hat{u}$, new; \bar{a} -nin, near, etc.; Daflā \bar{a} -bo, father; \bar{a} -na, mother; \bar{a} - $l\bar{a}$, hand; $aiy\bar{e}$, belly; \bar{a} ss \hat{a} , long; a- $n\bar{u}$, quick. This prefix is connected with the Burmese prefix a which is used in the formation of nouns and adjectives, and with the Tibetan prefix a in words such as a-ma, mother; a-phyi, grandmother; a- $th\bar{o}$ -ba, beautiful, etc. We may compare the prefix a in the Kuki and Nāgā languages and perhaps the demonstrative pronoun a in many Tibeto-Burman languages.

The same, or a similar, prefix also occurs in the forms \tilde{e} , \tilde{i} , o, and \tilde{u} or \tilde{u} .

 \vec{E} or e occurs in Miri \vec{e} - $ng\vec{a}$, fish; \vec{e} - $k\vec{\imath}$, dog; \vec{e} - $k\vec{\imath}$ m, house; \vec{e} - $p\vec{\imath}k$, arrow, etc.; Daffa e-hi, tooth; e-yin, potato; e-zz, cloth, etc.

I or i is apparently identical with e. Thus, Daflā $\bar{\imath}$ - $k\bar{\imath}$, dog; illyi, pig; isshi, water, etc. I have not found any certain instances in Miri.

O is also apparently peculiar to Dafiā; thus, oppo, Miri \bar{a} - $p\bar{o}ng$, liquor; opp \bar{u} , Miri \bar{a} - $p\bar{u}n$, flower; \bar{o} - $p\bar{u}$, Miri \bar{e} - $p\bar{u}k$, arrow, etc.

U and \ddot{u} occur in words such as Miri \ddot{u} - $m\ddot{u}$, fire; Daflā \ddot{u} -m or \ddot{u} -m, fire; $\ddot{u}tt\ddot{u}$, bread; $\ddot{u}ss\ddot{u}$, firewood, etc.

In most of these cases the prefix is probably the same, the different forms being due to a kind of harmonic sequence.

A prefix $k\bar{e}$ or $k\bar{a}$ is apparently used before adjectives. Thus, Miri $k\bar{e}$ - $m\bar{o}$, dark; $k\bar{e}$ - $n\bar{o}$, hungry; $k\bar{e}$ - $sh\bar{a}$, like; Daflā $k\bar{a}$ -n, dark; $k\bar{a}ch$, dirty; $k\bar{a}$ - $n\acute{a}$, hungry, etc. A corresponding prefix ka or ga is used in Kachin, Nāgā, Bodo, and some Kuki-Chin languages.

Several other prefixes probably exist. Thus we find a prefix beginning with b in Miri adjectives such as $b\tilde{a}-t\tilde{e}$, great; $b\tilde{a}-j\tilde{e}$, many; $b\tilde{a}-dong$, long; $b\tilde{e}-l\tilde{a}v$, slippery, etc. A prefix $m\tilde{e}$ apparently occurs in Miri $m\tilde{e}-l\tilde{a}m$, last, compare $l\tilde{a}m-k\tilde{u}$, back, etc. In most

cases, however, we are not as yet able to decide whether a word contains an otiose prefix or not.

The otiose prefixes are usually dropped in words which form the first part of a compound. Thus, Miri \bar{a} - $m\bar{\imath}k$, eye; $m\bar{\imath}k$ - $sh\bar{a}p$, eye-lash; Daflā a-nyi, eye; $ny\bar{\imath}$ - $s\bar{a}mam$, eye-brow, etc.

Articles.—There are no articles. The numeral 'one' is often used as an indefinite article. Thus, Miri \bar{a} - $m\bar{\imath}$ \bar{a} - $k\acute{a}$, a man; Daflà beny $\bar{a}kkin$ - $g\acute{a}$, a stick; $ny\bar{\imath}$ $\bar{a}kk$, a man. Very often the particles $k\acute{a}$ (Miri) and $g\acute{a}$ (Daflà) are used alone. Thus, Miri \bar{a} - $m\bar{\imath}$ - $k\acute{a}$, Daflà $ny\bar{\imath}$ - $g\acute{a}$, a man. $K\acute{a}$ and $g\acute{a}$ are probably identical with the so-called Tibetan article ka, kha, or ga. The Burmese generic suffix a-khu, which is added to numerals when no special suffix is required, might perhaps also be compared.

Relative clauses and demonstrative pronouns are used in order to convey the idea of definiteness.

Nouns.—Gender.—Gender is only apparent in the case of animate beings. The gender of human beings is distinguished by using different words or by adding suffixes. The usual suffixes are $b\bar{o}$, male, and $m\bar{o}$, ma and ne, female, in Miri, and pa or ba, male, and ma and na, fen ale, in Daflā.

Miri:

Another male suffix lvong or $l\bar{o}ng$ seems to occur in Miri $m\bar{\imath}$ -lvong or $m\bar{\imath}$ -l $\bar{o}ng$, a male human being. Thus, \bar{a} - $b\bar{u}$, father, \bar{a} - $n\bar{u}$, mother: $t\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{o}$, grandfather; yai- \bar{o} , grandmother: $m\bar{\imath}$ -lvong, man; $m\bar{\imath}$ -ma, woman: $p\bar{a}k$ - $b\bar{o}$, a male slave; $p\bar{a}ng$ -ne, a female slave: $m\bar{a}k$ - $b\bar{o}$, a brother-in-law; $m\bar{a}$ - $m\bar{o}$, a sister-in-law. $M\bar{\imath}$ - $l\bar{o}ng$, man, and $m\bar{\imath}$ -ma, woman, are also used in order to distinguish gender; thus, $k\bar{o}$ $m\bar{\imath}$ - $l\bar{o}ng$, child male, son; $k\bar{o}$ - $m\bar{\imath}$ -ma, daughter.

Dafla:

Another male suffix $g\bar{a}$ seems to occur in Daflā $nye-g\bar{a}$, a male human being.

Thus, \bar{a} -bo, father; \bar{a} -m \bar{a} and \bar{a} -na, mother: $\bar{a}tt\bar{a}$, grandfather; ai, grandmother: nye- $g\bar{a}$, man; nyemm, woman: $nyerr\bar{a}$, a slave; $p\bar{a}$ -n, a female slave: $t\bar{u}m$ -ba, a bachelor, etc. Nye- $g\bar{a}$, man, and nyemm, woman, are also used in order to distinguish gender; thus, $k\hat{a}$ nye- $g\bar{a}$ or nye- $g\bar{a}$ $k\hat{a}$, son; $k\hat{a}$ nyemm or nyemm $k\hat{a}$, a daughter: $ny\bar{i}$ nye- $g\bar{a}$, a man; $ny\bar{i}$ nyemm, a woman. The two last instances show that nye- $g\bar{a}$ and nye- $m\bar{a}$ are compounds consisting of $ny\bar{i}$ and the suffixes $g\bar{a}$ and ma respectively.

The gender of animals is distinguished by means of suffixes, before which the noun or its last syllable is repeated. The repetition of the noun must be compared with the use of generic prefixes with numerals. The prefixed syllable is the essential part of the noun.

Miri:

The usual suffixes are $b\vec{a}$, $r\vec{a}$, and $t\vec{u}m$, male, and na, female. $B\vec{a}$ and na are also suffixed as a kind of male and female

Daflā:

The usual suffixes are ba or pa, and $g\bar{a}$, male, and na, female. $Nye-g\bar{a}$, man, and nyemm, woman, are said to be used to

¹ The usual forms for 'father' and 'mother' in Miri are $b\bar{a}$ - $b\bar{u}$, father, and $n\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{u}$, mother. The forms \bar{a} - $b\bar{u}$ and \bar{a} - $n\bar{u}$ are used when outsiders ask questions about one's father or mother. The distinction between the two forms is not, however, quite clear. In the Parable \bar{a} - $b\bar{u}$, father is used in the first sentence, while afterwards only the form $b\bar{a}$ - $b\bar{u}$ occurs.

adjective. In this case they are preceded by the prefix \bar{a} , and followed by $k\bar{a}$. Thus, \bar{e} - $k\bar{\imath}$ $k\bar{\imath}$ - $b\bar{a}$, a dog; \bar{e} - $k\bar{\imath}$ $k\bar{\imath}$ -na, a bitch: $s\bar{\imath}$ - $t\bar{u}m$ $t\bar{u}m$ -ra, a male bear; $s\bar{\imath}$ - $t\bar{u}m$ $t\bar{u}m$ -na, a female bear: men- $j\bar{a}k$ $j\bar{a}k$ - $t\bar{u}m$, a hebuffalo; men- $j\bar{a}k$ $j\bar{a}ng$ -na, a shebuffalo: $g\bar{o}r\bar{u}$ \bar{a} - $b\bar{a}$ - $k\bar{a}$, a bull; $g\bar{o}r\bar{u}$ \bar{a} -na- $k\bar{a}$, a cow.

distinguish the gender of animals as well as of human beings. Thus, $\bar{\imath}-k\bar{\imath}$ $k\bar{\imath}-b$, a dog; $\bar{\imath}-k\bar{\imath}$ $k\bar{\imath}-n$, a bitch: $s\bar{\imath}-bin$ $b\bar{\imath}m-pa$, a he-goat; $s\bar{\imath}-bin$ $b\bar{\imath}n-na$, a she-goat: $sebb\bar{\imath}$ begga, a he-monkey; $sebb\bar{\imath}$ be-n, a female monkey: $\bar{\imath}-k\bar{\imath}$ nye- $g\bar{a}$, a dog; $\bar{\imath}-k\bar{\imath}$ nyem-ma, a bitch.

Mr. Hamilton mentions some cases in which the last syllable of the noun is slightly altered before the suffix. Thus, sa ha-b, a bull; sa ha-n, a cow. Mr. Robinson gives sü-bō, a bull, and sü-ne, a cow. The base is sa.

Number.—When it is necessary to denote the number of a noun, and no numeral is added, some word meaning 'many,' 'all,' and so on, is added. The usual word in Miri is ki-ding. In Daflā we find words such as tūllūē, malūhēr, mullūēr, at-chamma, e-dē, etc., all meaning 'many,' 'all.' Mr. Robinson gives pāng, all, and ā-rok, many. Thus, Miri ā-mī ki-ding, men; Daflā nyī tūllūē, men; sī-bin e-dē, goats, etc.

Case.—The various functions which a noun performs in a sentence are usually indicated by means of postpositions.

The nominative does not take any suffix. Thus, Miri $p\bar{a}k-b\bar{o}$ $l\bar{u}-t\bar{o}$, the slave said; Daflā $mem\ e-yin\ ha-b\ ly\bar{\imath}-dna$, the-root potato like is, the root is like a potato. A particle a is often added. Thus, Miri $\bar{e}-k\bar{\imath}-a\ ng\bar{o}m\ rek-t\bar{o}$, dog me bit, a dog bit me; Daflā $ng\bar{a}-lu$ $ny\bar{\imath}-sing-a\ h\bar{a}\ \bar{u}-t-m\bar{a}$, we Daflās there go-not, we Daflās do not go there. In Daflā e is sometimes used instead; thus, $ny\bar{\imath}-e\ \bar{u}-ly\bar{a}m$, a-man coming, when a man comes.

The suffix a is sometimes added to a noun or adjective as a kind of copula or verb substantive. Thus, Miri $s\bar{\imath}$ $ng\hat{a}-ka$ $b\bar{a}-b\bar{u}-ka$ $\bar{e}-k\bar{u}m-a$, this my father's house; Daflā $s\bar{\imath}$ $ng\bar{a}m$ $abbui-y\bar{a}-a$, this me-concerning old-more-is, he is older than I. A is probably originally a verb substantive or a demonstrative pronoun. It is never used when a demonstrative pronoun is added. Thus, Miri $g\bar{a}s\bar{o}r$ da, cloth that; Daflā $ainy\hat{a}-y\hat{a}$ ha, younger that, the younger.

The nominative is the case of the subject. There is apparently no difference whether the verb is transitive or intransitive.

all-not whole-time stay will, I will stay until the singing is finished. Compare the use of this suffix in the formation of adverbial participles.

Miri:

The usual suffix of the dative is ma or me. Thus, Dumai-ma $b\bar{\imath}-to-k\bar{a}$, Dumaito give; $ng\bar{a}$ Ishar-me $p\bar{a}p$ $\bar{\imath}-t\bar{o}$, I God-to sin did. Compare Burmese $mh\bar{a}$, in, at, in presence of, concerning.

Dafla:

The usual suffix of the dative is pa or ba, to. Thus, $ng\bar{a}$ -p jibba, me-to give; $ng\bar{a}$ $S\bar{a}g\bar{a}$ -ba $j\bar{\imath}t$ -namma, I $S\bar{a}g\bar{a}$ -to gave.

The genitive is often expressed by putting the governed before the governing noun, without any suffix. Thus, Miri $d\hat{a}$ - $l\bar{u}ng$ \bar{a} - $m\bar{\epsilon}$, village-of men, the men of the village; \bar{a} - $d\bar{\epsilon}$ $tai\bar{o}$ - $l\hat{a}$, hill-of top-on, on the top of the hill; Daflā $ny\bar{\epsilon}$ $u\bar{\epsilon}$, man's blood; sa-ta \bar{a} - $l\bar{a}$, an elephant's leg. A suffix ka in Miri, and ka or ga in Daflā is often added, especially in the case of the possessive genitive. Thus, Miri $ng\hat{a}$ Dumai-ka au-a, I Dumai's son-am; Daflā $ng\hat{a}$ -ka \bar{a} -bo-ka (or $\bar{a}b$ -ga) $n\bar{a}m$, my father's house. Compare Kanāshī and Sunwār $k\bar{a}$, Yūkhā $g\bar{a}$, Tibetan kyi, Meithei gi, Empēo gu, etc. This postposition has originally a genitive and ablative force. Compare Burmese ka, from.

Miri:

The suffix of the locative is $l\acute{a}$ or $l\~{o}$; thus, $d\~{a}$ - $ny\~{i}$ - $l\~{a}$ ma-to- $k\~{a}$, sun-in put, put it in the sun; bui $\~{e}$ - $k\~{u}$ m- $l\~{a}$ $d\~{u}ng$, he house-in is; $shor\~{i}$ - $l\~{a}$ rin-to- $k\~{a}$, ropes-in bind, bind him with ropes. Compare the Tibetan dative suffix $l\~{a}$ which denotes the relation of space in the widest sense. Another suffix $\~{a}$ occurs in $s\~{a}$ - $p\~{u}$, here, etc.

The ablative is formed by adding k, k-ka, and k-ke to the locative suffix $l\bar{o}$. The genitive suffix ka often precedes the ablative suffix. Thus, \bar{e} - $k\bar{u}m$ -lok, house from; Du-mai-ka lok-ka, from Dumai; $n\bar{a}$ -ka $n\bar{a}$ -na-ka lok, our mother from. K and k-ka in lok and lokka are identical with the genitive suffix. The use of the genitive before lok(-ka) shows that the locative suffix $l\bar{a}$ is originally a noun in the locative; compare $n\bar{a}$ $ng\bar{a}$ -ka $l\bar{a}$ \bar{a} -gin- $p\bar{u}$ $d\bar{u}ng$, thou mine in always art, thou art always with me.

The vocative is like the nominative. Thus, $b\bar{a}-b\bar{u}$, O father; au-a, O son.

Other relations are indicated by means of postpositions. Such are \bar{a} - $r\bar{a}$ - $l\hat{a}$, inside, within; $k\bar{e}$ - $\bar{e}g$ - $l\hat{a}$, between, under; $r\bar{a}$ - $d\bar{a}$ - $l\hat{a}$, among; $tai\bar{o}$ - $l\hat{a}$, on the top of; $k\bar{e}$ - $r\bar{a}$ - $p\ddot{u}$, before; $m\bar{e}$ - $l\bar{a}m$ - $p\ddot{u}$, behind, etc.

Daflā:

The suffixes of the locative are \hat{a} and $l\hat{a}$. Thus, au-w- \hat{a} , top-on; $\bar{u}ll\bar{u}$ - \hat{a} , on the rock; $\bar{a}l$ - $l\hat{a}$, in a day. Usually, however, $s\hat{a}$ and $h\hat{a}$, the locatives of the demonstrative pronouns $s\bar{i}$, this, and ha, that, are added. Thus, zilla $s\hat{a}$, station this-in, in the station; \bar{a} - $l\bar{a}$ $h\hat{a}$, hand that-on, on the hand.

The ablative is formed: by adding k or kha to the locative. Thus, au okka, top from; $\bar{u}\bar{\iota}$ $mn\bar{u}k$ $l\tilde{u}k$, ghost's country from, from the dead; nanga $s\tilde{u}kka$, village thisfrom, from the village; $dar\bar{u}b$ hokka, property that-from, from the property.

The vocative is like the nominative. A particle \hat{a} is, however, sometimes added; thus, $\bar{a}b$ - \hat{a} , O father.

Other relations are indicated by means of postpositions. Such are $a-r\ddot{u}-h\acute{a}$, inside; $\acute{a}-g\bar{u}m-h\acute{a}$ and $d\acute{a}k-h\acute{a}$, near; ba, to; $ka-t\ddot{a}-ba$, on account of; $k\acute{a}-ku-\acute{a}$, behind; lag-ba and $lag-h\acute{a}$, with; $lep\ddot{a}-h\acute{a}$, among, etc.

Adjectives.—There is no real difference between adjectives and verbs. When used in order to qualify a noun, the adjectives take the form of relative participles, the suffix na being added. Another suffix $b\acute{a}$ or $p\acute{a}$, corresponding to the Tibetan article pa, is often added in Daflā. Sometimes, however, no suffix is used. Adjectives sometimes precede and sometimes follow the noun they qualify. Thus, Miri ai-na $m\bar{i}$ -ma, a good woman; $m\bar{i}$ -lvong ai-na- $k\acute{a}$, a good man; Daflā $ny\bar{i}$ $\bar{a}l$ -na, a good man; $n\bar{a}$ $\bar{a}sso$ - $b\acute{a}$, a long boat; \bar{a} - $d\acute{a}$ $g\bar{u}d\bar{a}$, far country, a distant country.

The suffix of the comparative is $y\bar{a}$, and the compared noun precedes in the accusative. A particle $p\bar{u}nam$, than, is inserted between the compared noun and the comparative in Miri. Thus, Miri $ng\bar{a}$ -ka $g\bar{a}$ - $s\bar{o}r$ na'-k $g\bar{a}$ - $s\bar{o}r$ -em $p\bar{u}$ -nam ai- $y\bar{a}$ - $d\bar{a}k$, my cloth than good-more-is; na'-k-em $p\bar{u}$ -nam ba'- $t\bar{e}$ - $y\bar{a}$ -da', thine than large-more-is, it is too large for thee; Daflā mui-ga bor ha mui-ga buir-ma $h\bar{a}m$ aua'- $y\bar{a}$ -dna, his brother he his sister her-than tall-more-is, his brother is taller than his sister.

In Miri bui-ka bui-ka bui-ma lok-ke ba- $t\bar{e}$ -dek, his brother his sister from tall-more, his brother is taller than his sister, we have another suffix dek, apparently corresponding to Burmese a-thak, and to tak in some Kuki-Chin languages.

The superlative is expressed by comparing with 'all.'

Miri:

Ā-pui-lok, all from, or ā-pui-lok-em pūnam, all-from-considering than, is prefixed to the comparative. Thus, ā-pui-lok ai-yā, all-from good-more, best; nā-ka gāsōr ā-pui-lok-em ai-dā, thy cloth all-from good-is; Dū-pū-rī-ka ken-tū ā-pui-lok-em pūnam kān-kān-yā, Dūpūrī's carrings allfrom pretty-pretty-more, Dūpūrī's carrings are the prettiest.

Dafla:

Mūllī-ja-ha, mūl-lū-jā-hām, or, according to Mr. Robinson, pāng, all, is prefixed to the comparative. Thus, hā nām-a mūllī-ja-ha āl-yānna, his house all-than good-more; mūl-lī-ja ezz hām āl-yānn ezz, all clothes those-than good-more cloth, the best cloth of all; pāng au-yā, all-than higher, highest.

Adverbs are formed by adding the suffix $p\ddot{u}$ in Miri and ba in Daflā. Thus, Miri $ai-p\ddot{u}$, well; $ai-m\ddot{a}-p\ddot{u}$, badly; $b\ddot{a}-j\ddot{e}-p\ddot{u}$, highly; $s\bar{\imath}m\ddot{a}t-p\ddot{u}$, foolishly; Daflā $\ddot{a}l-ba$, well; $a-n\ddot{u}-ba$, quickly; ha-b, thus; hog-ba, why? etc.

Numerals.—The numerals are given in the lists of words. They follow the noun they qualify. The suffix $k\tilde{a}$ (Miri) or $g\tilde{a}$ (Daflā) is usually added to the numerals. Compare the Indefinite article. The first six numerals are preceded by the prefix \tilde{a} .

The form \bar{a} - $t\bar{e}r$ - $k\acute{a}$, one, in Miri is only used as a numeral, and not as an indefinite article. Compare Burmese tach, pronounced tit, one. The r in \bar{a} - $t\bar{e}r$ - $k\acute{a}$ may be compared with the r in Miri \bar{e} -ek er- $b\acute{a}$, pig male.

'Four' is $p\bar{\imath}$ in Miri and pli or pl in Daflã. Compare pa-li in Lushēi and connected languages.

'Six' is keng and $k\bar{\imath}$ in Miri, kr in Daflā. Compare Burmese khrok, pronounced khyauk. Mr. Robinson gives the Daflā form $\bar{a}kple$.

The numerals 'seven,' 'eight,' and 'nine' are compounds, and the prefix \bar{a} is not used before them. Compare the dropping of prefixes in compound nouns.

'Seven' is kī-nit in Miri, and kannī in Daflā. Mr. Robinson gives kānag. The word seems to mean 'two more than the hand.' Compare Bunán nyizhi, Bârâ sni, etc.

'Eight' is pī-nyī in Miri, and plī-n in Daflā. Mr. Robinson has plag-nag. The word means 'four times two.'

Miri $k\hat{a}$ - $n\bar{a}ng$, Dafla $ky\bar{a}$ (Robinson $k\bar{a}$ - $y\bar{o}$), nine, must be compared with Tibetan 7u, Burmese ko.

The numerals 11 to 19, 21 to 29, etc., are formed by inserting Miri lang; Dafla la, and, between 'ten,' 'twenty,' etc., and the numerals 'one,' 'two,' etc.

The higher numerals are formed by suffixing the multiplier to the numeral 'ten.' Thus, Miri \bar{e} -ing \bar{a} - $\bar{u}m$ - $k\hat{a}$, tens three, thirty. In Dafla the ordinary word for 'ten' is not used in this way but a word chom, corresponding to shom in Lushei and connected languages. Thus, chom-um-ka, thirty; jem-pl-ka, forty, etc. Dafla nyi-kru, twenty, is formed by prefixing the multiplier to another word for 'ten.' Krü must be compared with Angami kerr, ten.

The numerals are usually preceded by generic prefixes. These are often words with a meaning of their own. Thus, in Miri ā-pui pui-keng-gá, Daflā püp pü-kr-gá, eggs six, the prefixes pui and pü are simply shortened forms of the words for 'egg.' In other cases the generic prefixes have apparently now lost their meaning. They are never used before the numerals 'seven,' 'eight,' and 'nine' in Miri. The prefix \bar{a} is often used irstead both in Miri and Daflā.

Such prefixes are:-

Miri:

 $b\bar{a}r$, for rupees; $b\bar{o}r$, for flat things; $d\bar{o}r$, for animals; $k\bar{o}ng$, for houses; $p\bar{i}r$, for birds; pom, for villages; pui, for round things, eggs, months, etc. Thus, porok $p\bar{\imath}r$ - $p\bar{\imath}$ - $k\acute{a}$, fowls four; $g\bar{a}$ - $s\bar{o}r$ $b\bar{o}r$ - $\bar{u}m$ - $k\acute{a}$, three cloths, etc.

Daflā:

bar, for money, months, etc.; bor, for leaves of trees; dor, for animals; nām, for houses; pom, for villages; pü, for eggs, Thus, bol bar-g-ba, month oneabout; nangū pom-pla-gá, four villages,

Pronouns.—The following are the personal pronouns:—

Miri:

ngá-ka, my, mine.

ngá-lū, we.

ngom, me.

 $n_{ij}\hat{a}$, I.

 $n\acute{a}$, thou.

 $n\bar{o}m$, thee.

ná-ka, thy, thine.

ná-lū, you.

bui, he, she.

buim, him, her.

bui-ka, his, her, hers.

 $b\bar{u}$ - $l\bar{u}$, they.

Reflexive pronouns are :-

Miri:

Ai-yū, self; accusative ai-yūm, genitive aikā. The particles shū and muin-

Dafla:

ngá, I.

ngām, me.

ngá, ngá-ka, my, mine.

ngá-lu, we.

ná, thou.

 $n\bar{a}m$, thee.

ná, ná-ka, thy, thine.

ná-lu, you.

ma, he, she.

mām, him, her.

mui-ga, mü-ga, his, her, hers.

büllu, they.

Dofla :

Atte, self, is only used in the accusative. The particle $s\hat{u}$ or $sh\bar{u}$ gives a reflexive shū give a reflexive force to the verb. Thus, $n\hat{a}-l\bar{u}$ $k\bar{a}-p\bar{\imath}-l\bar{a}$ $g\bar{e}$ -muin- \imath hū-dū-na, you why quarrelling-with-each-other-are? Compare the reflexive particle che in Mikir, s in Bāhing, etc.

The Demonstrative pronouns are:—

Miri:

 $s\bar{\imath}$ and $s\bar{\imath}$ -da, this; da and a-da, that; a-la, that person or thing in sight but not near. $S\bar{\imath}$ and da are inflected by adding the ordinary suffixes. Thus, accusative sim and dem; genitive $s\hat{a}$ -ka and da-ka; ablative $s\hat{a}$ -k and dak.

A in a-da and a-la is apparently an independent pronoun. Compare a-la, thatin, there; a-lokka, therefrom. A corresponding pronoun a occurs in many other connected dialects.

Da is often added to a noun as a kind of definite article; thus, $g\bar{a}$ - $s\bar{o}r$ dem $ng\bar{o}m$ $b\bar{i}$ - $k\bar{a}$, cloth that me-to give, give me the cloth.

force to the verb. Thus, $\bar{\imath}-k\bar{\imath}$ che- \bar{a} -s \bar{u} -denna, dogs biting-one-another-are, the dogs are fighting.

Daflā:

 $s\bar{\imath}$, this; ha, that; \bar{a} - $l\hat{a}$, that person or thing in sight but not near.

 $S\bar{\imath}$ and ha take the forms of $s\acute{a}$ and $h\acute{a}$, respectively, when prefixed to a noun, to a postposition, or to a suffix beginning with a consonant. Thus, genitive $s\acute{a}$ and $s\acute{a}$ -ka, $h\acute{a}$ and $h\acute{a}$ -ka; but accusative $s\~{a}m$ and $h\~{a}m$. Mr. Robinson gives the forms $s\~{a}$ and $ch\~{o}$, this, and $\~{a}\~{o}$ - $n\~{a}$, that. Instances of the use of these pronouns are: $s\~{a}$ nyemm $s\~{i}$, this woman this; $h\~{a}$ ny $\~{i}$ ha, that man that; $h\~{a}$ g $\~{u}d\~{a}$ $h\~{a}$, that country that-in. The nominative of ha is ha and $h\~{e}$. Ha is very commonly added to nouns as a kind of definite article. Thus, $k\~{a}$ ha, son that, the son.

Ta and ba are demonstrative bases common to Miri and Daflā. They are only found in the locative. Thus, Miri ta-la, Daflā $t\bar{a}$ -la, there, up stream; Miri ba-la, Daflā $b\bar{a}$ -la, there, downstream. Daflā, and perhaps also Miri, apparently also possess a demonstrative pronoun ka, that; thus, $ng\bar{a}$ \bar{a} -dna-k ha-la, 'I am-come' that (k) saying, saying that he has come; $k\bar{a}$ - $ily\bar{a}$ -ta ka ha-l, 'tend' that saying, saying that he should tend. Compare Adverbial participles.

There are no relative pronouns. Relative participles are used instead, and a demonstrative pronoun is often added as a kind of correlative. The usual suffix of the relative participle is na. Thus, Miri ngōm sīm gā-sōr sīm bī-na ā-mī da sī-kāng, me-to this cloth this giving man that dead-is, the man who gave me this cloth is dead; Dafiā kā bū-na nyemm, child bearing woman, a woman who has borne a child. The suffix nām forms verbal nouns which are used as relative participles, in most cases with a passive meaning. Thus Miri ngā-ka Dhonirām-lokke rēnām gōrū da yōk-kai, my Dhanirām-from buying cow that lost-was, the cow which I bought from Dhanirām was lost; Dafiā oml āb-nām nyī, poison striking man, a man who has been touched by poison; mōbū āb-nām nyī hē sī, gun firing man that this, this is the man who fired the gun.

Instances such as Miri *Dhonirām-ka tū-dā long-ā-dem*, Dhanirām's said-being dayon, on the day which Dhanirām mentions, where the verb substantive $d\hat{a}$ is used as a relative participle, make it probable that the suffix na is also originally a verb substantive.

We often also find relative clauses rendered by means of two co-ordinate sentences, after the pattern: 'I saw a man, he is here.'

The interrogative pronouns are :-

Miri:

 $s\bar{e}$ - $k\bar{o}$, who? in- $kw\ddot{o}$ and in- $k\ddot{a}$, what? $k\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{\imath}$, what? what matter? a-dit- $k\ddot{a}$, how much? how many? $k\bar{a}$ - $p\ddot{\imath}$, how? $k\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{\imath}$ - $l\bar{a}$, why?

The indefinite particles $d\bar{\imath}$ and $t\bar{e}$ make interrogative pronouns indefinite. Thus, $s\bar{e}-k\bar{o}-d\bar{\imath}$, somebody; $s\bar{e}-k\bar{o}-t\bar{e}$ $k\bar{a}-m\bar{a}$, anybody exists-not, nobody.

Daflā:

hī, who? hogo, what? hogad-gá, how much? how many? hogahab, how? hog-ba, why?

The indefinite particles $j\bar{a}$ and $g\acute{a}$ make interrogative pronouns indefinite. Thus, hog- $g\acute{a}$, something; hog- $j\bar{a}$, anything, etc.

Verbs.—Verbs do not vary for gender, number, or person. The different tenses are formed by adding suffixes.

The usual verb substantive is $d\bar{u}ng$ in Miri and $d\bar{o}ng$ or $d\hat{a}$ in Daffā. It probably corresponds to Tibetan 'a-dug-pa, to be, to exist, Mikir do, to stay, to abide, etc. This verb is commonly added to other verbs as a kind of auxiliary. Compare the corresponding use of 'a-dug-pa in Tibetan. Other forms of the verb substantive will be mentioned below.

Miri:

The verb $d\bar{u}ng$, to be, occurs in several slightly different forms such as $d\bar{u}ng$, $d\bar{u}$, $d\bar{a}$, $d\bar{a}$, $d\bar{a}$, $d\bar{a}ng$. It is possible that two different roots are contained in these forms. They are, however, used promiscuously.

The forms $d\bar{u}ng$, $d\bar{a}k$, etc., are used for the present, and sometimes also for the past time. Thus, $ng\hat{a}$ $d\bar{u}ng$ or $d\bar{a}k$, I am; \bar{a} - $m\bar{i}$ -a $g\bar{i}$ - \bar{a} - $d\bar{a}k$, a man has come.

The past tense is usually formed by adding the suffix ai, probably another form of the verb substantive. Compare ai in Kachin, and \tilde{e} in some Kuki-Chin and Nāgā languages. Thus, $ng\tilde{a}$ $d\tilde{u}ng$ -ai or $d\tilde{u}g$ -ai, I was.

The nominative suffix a seems to belong to the same root. Compare $ng\hat{a}$ buim $k\hat{a}$ -ling-a, I him to-see-wishing am, I wish to see him.

$Daflar{a}$:

The form $d\bar{o}ng$, to be, is given by Mr. Robinson. Mr. Hamilton gives $d\hat{a}$, which is often abbreviated to da and d. The present tense is $d\hat{a} \cdot d\hat{a}$ or $d\hat{a} \cdot d \cdot na$, the latter form containing the abbreviated verb d, and the suffix na, probably another verb substantive. Mr. Robinson gives $d\bar{o}ng \cdot p\bar{a}$ in the present and $d\bar{o}ng \cdot pon\bar{a}$ in the past. $D\hat{a}$ is, in other respects, conjugated as an ordinary verb.

The nominative suffix a seems to be another verb substantive. Thus, $s\bar{\imath}$ $ng\bar{a}m$ $bor-iy\bar{a}-a$, he me-than young-more-is, he is younger than I. Compare nominative, above.

The **Present tense** is formed by adding the verb substantive to the root. Thus, Miri $ng\acute{a}$ $k\ddot{a}$ - $d\ddot{u}ng$ or $k\ddot{a}$ - $d\ddot{u}$, I.see; $ng\acute{a}$ - $l\ddot{u}$ $t\ddot{u}$ - $d\acute{a}$, we drink; Daflā $ng\acute{a}$ $k\ddot{a}$ - $p\ddot{a}$ - $d\acute{a}$, I happen to see; $ng\acute{a}$ \ddot{a} - $l\ddot{a}$ achi- $d\acute{a}$, my leg sore-is.

Miri:

The form $d\bar{u}$ is often used before the particle $d\bar{i}$ denoting vague probability.

Dafl $ar{a}$:

The usual suffix of the present tense is no or nē, probably a verb substantive.

Thus, $p\bar{o}$ - $d\bar{o}ng$ \bar{o} - $d\bar{u}$ - $d\bar{i}$, rain falling-is-possibly, can it be raining?

Compare Rengmā Nāgā $l\bar{e}$ or $n\bar{e}$, Semā $l\bar{a}$, etc. The suffix of the relative participle is perhaps identical. D, the shortest form of the verb $d\hat{a}$, is usually prefixed to na and $n\bar{e}$. Denna is often substituted for dna. The e in denna can be considered as a kind of svarabhakti. Thus, $ng\hat{a}$ - $l\bar{u}$ \bar{u} -l- $n\bar{e}$, we go; $ng\hat{a}$ $d\hat{a}$ -dna or $d\hat{a}$ - $dn\bar{e}$, I am; $Ai\bar{a}ng$ -a chen-dna, the Abors know; $ng\hat{a}$ -lu $\bar{o}p\bar{u}$ - $h\hat{a}$ oml $\bar{a}p$ -denna, we arrows-in poison put, we poison our arrows.

Past time.—The suffixes used in Miri and Daflā differ widely. Only one suffix seems to be common to both, Miri $t\tilde{o}$, and Daflā t. Compare Mikir $t\tilde{a}ng$, to finish, the suffix $t\tilde{a}$ in many Kuki-Chin languages, etc.

Miri:

The present tense is sometimes used to denote the past. Thus, *Dhonirām-ka buir-ma gīdūng*, Dhanirām's sister came.

The usual suffix of the past time is $t\bar{o}$. The suffix ai is often added, and $t\bar{o}$ is then changed to $t\bar{u}$. Thus, $bui\ l\bar{u}$ - $t\bar{o}$, he said; $ng\hat{a}\ d\hat{a}$ - $t\bar{u}$ -ai, I ate.

The suffix $k\bar{a}$ or $k\bar{a}ng$, usually denotes a distant past, but is also used in the same way as $t\bar{o}$. Thus, $y\bar{o}k-k\bar{a}ng$, it is lost; \bar{a} - $s\bar{i}$ - $l\bar{a}$ \bar{o} -lek- $k\bar{a}ng$, water-in fallen-has, it has fallen into the water.

The suffix ai seems to be added to $k\bar{a}$ in $g\bar{o}r\bar{u}$ $y\bar{o}k$ -kai, the cow was lost.

The suffix $k\bar{u}$ which is often added, is merely an assertive particle. Thus, bui $g\bar{s}-k\bar{a}ng-k\bar{u}$, he has departed. Compare $ng\hat{a}$ $\bar{a}-m\bar{s}-k\hat{a}$ $k\bar{a}-t\bar{u}-ai$ $s\bar{s}-da-k\bar{u}$, I man-a saw this-indeed, this is the man I saw.

Daflā:

The suffix t, mentioned above, is often inserted before the various suffixes of the past time.

Lā seldom occurs alone, t being usually prefixed. Tlā is often changed to tella and tlēya. Lā must be compared with Angāmi, Semā, and Rengmā lē, Mikir lā, etc. Compare also the suffix of the conjunctive participle. Instances of its use are pakh-lā, he has killed; pen-jī-tlā, he divided-gave; mā-yūm-tella, he wasted; kā a-nyi-gā dā-tlē-ya, sons two were, there were two sons.

The most usual suffix of the past tense is nma, nam-ma, or nemma, probably a past tense of the root na or nē mentioned above. The real suffix is probably ma. Compare man in Bârâ and other languages of the Bodo group.

The interchange between nma and namma is analogous to that between dna and denna, tlā and tella. Thus, ngá kā-nma, I saw; ma tach-namma, he asked; ālnemma, it was good. Nna is apparently sometimes used instead of nma; thus, ūnna, he went; nyīn-kū-nna, he was lost; ná da-nna, you have eaten. These forms are probably only present tenses used to denote the past.

A **Present definite** is formed by adding $d\bar{u}ng$ or $d\bar{q}k$ to the root or to the participle in $l\bar{a}$. Thus, bui $d\hat{a}$ - $m\bar{o}$ - $d\bar{u}ng$, he feeds, or, is feeding; $k\bar{o}$ bui $y\bar{u}v$ - $l\bar{a}$ $d\bar{u}ng$, child that sleeping is.

An Imperfect is formed by adding dung-ai or dag-ai to the root. Thus, nga kā-dāg-ai, I was seeing.

Future.—The usual suffixes are $y\bar{e}$, $p\bar{u}$, and $y\bar{e}$ - $p\bar{u}$; thus, $p\bar{o}$ - $d\bar{o}ng$ \bar{o} - $y\bar{e}$, rain fallwill; $ng\bar{a}$ $l\bar{u}$ - $p\bar{u}$, I say-will; $n\bar{a}$ -ka $t\bar{a}ra$ ai- $y\bar{e}$ - $p\bar{u}$, thy sore good-be-will, thy sore will get well.

The particle $d\bar{\imath}$ denoting vague probability is often added to $y\bar{e}$; thus, $bui\ g\bar{\imath}-\bar{a}-y\bar{e}-d\bar{\imath}$, he will probably come.

The particle $k\ddot{u}$, probably identical with the assertive suffix $k\ddot{u}$, is often added to $p\ddot{u}$; thus, \dot{e} - $k\ddot{i}$ -a $n\ddot{o}m$ rek- $p\ddot{u}$ - $k\ddot{u}$, dog you bite-will.

T' and p are sometimes inserted before the suffix nma. Thus, ngā lyī-t-namma, I have worked; ngā jī-t-namma, I gave; ngā kā-pā-tenma, I happened to see; ma jī-p-namma, he has given, etc.

The p which is inserted in forms such as $j\bar{\imath}-p$ -namma, is also used alone as a suffix of the past time, in the form $p\bar{a}$ or $b\bar{a}$, to which t and n or ne are usually prefixed. Thus, ma $p\bar{a}t$ dorog mem- $p\bar{a}$, he tiger one killed-has; $ng\tilde{a}$ $y\bar{u}b$ -t- $b\bar{a}$, I have slept; $b\bar{u}llu$ \bar{u} -n- $b\bar{a}$, they have gone; $pott\bar{u}ng$ -a $d\bar{u}g$ -ne- $b\bar{a}$, a splinter pricked (him), etc. Mr. Robinson gives $pan\bar{a}$ as the usual suffix of the past. We may compare Tibetan pa-yin, pen, and pin.

The suffix $p\bar{a}$ is often used to form a perfect. Compare the instances above. A kind of perfect is also formed by adding $ny\bar{a}$, to finish. Thus, $sa\ k\hat{a}\ j\bar{\imath}t$ - $n\bar{a}m\ pakh$ - $j\bar{\imath}$ - \bar{a} -lyi- $khr\bar{a}m$ - $ny\bar{a}$, cow young fat kill-give-indeed-do-even-finished, you have killed the fatted calf and given it to him.

A Present definite is formed by adding s-danna; thus, $ng\hat{a}$ $k\bar{a}$ -s-danna, I am seeing. The usual form, however, is identical with the present tense.

An **Imperfect** is formed by adding $d\hat{a}$ -nma to the participle in l. Thus, $ng\hat{a}$ $k\bar{a}$ -l $d\hat{a}$ -nma, I was seeing.

The suffix of the **Future** is $ne-p\ddot{u}$, $na-p\ddot{u}$, or $n-p\ddot{u}$, i.e. $p\ddot{u}$ added to na or ne. Thus, $ng\acute{a}$ $k\ddot{a}$ -il- $ne-p\ddot{u}$, I will see; ma ji-ne- $p\ddot{u}$, he will give. The syllable il in $k\ddot{a}$ -il-ne- $p\ddot{u}$ occurs in various forms such as il, $ily\ddot{a}$, lyi, ly, etc. It is probably a verb meaning 'to be occupied with,' 'to be,' and seems to convey the idea of an action which is not yet finished. Compare the participles \ddot{u} -ly- $k\ddot{u}$ - $l\ddot{a}$, while returning; \ddot{u} -t- $k\ddot{u}$ - $l\ddot{a}$, having returned.

A kind of periphrastic future is formed by adding $t\bar{a}$ to the root. $T\bar{a}$ is probably a verb meaning 'to intend.' Compare $ng\hat{a}$ \bar{u} - $t\bar{a}$ -dna, I to-go-intend; $ng\hat{a}$ $ny\bar{i}n$ \bar{v} -ta-

 $gr\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{a}$ -il-ne, I camp going shoot-intendingam, I will go out shooting; $ng\acute{a}$ ben- $t\bar{a}$ -il-ne, I will say. $T\bar{a}$ is often abbreviated to t before lyi; thus, $ng\acute{a}$ $k\bar{a}$ -tlyinne, I will see; $ng\acute{a}$ -lu da-tlyinn, we will eat.

Mr. Robinson gives $b\bar{o}$, which is identical with $p\ddot{u}$, as the suffix of the future.

The suffix $p\ddot{u}$ in Miri and Daflā is probably identical with Mikir $p\ddot{o}$, which denotes an action beginning now and continuing in the future. Miri $y\ddot{e}$ perhaps corresponds to Mikir $j\ddot{z}$, which denotes an action beginning later on.

The suffix of the **Imperative** is $k\bar{a}$, to which to, $t\bar{o}$ - $\bar{\imath}$, or $l\bar{a}ng$ is usually prefixed. Thus, $b\bar{\imath}$ - $k\bar{a}$, give; $p\bar{a}$ -to- $k\bar{a}$, strike; $k\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{o}$ - $\bar{\imath}$ - $k\bar{a}$, see; $k\bar{a}$ - $l\bar{a}ng$ - $k\bar{a}$, see. The suffix to- $k\bar{a}$ implies that the action should be performed once, while $k\bar{a}$ - $l\bar{a}ng$ - $k\bar{a}$ means 'see, as a rule.' $T\bar{o}$ - $\bar{\imath}$ - $k\bar{a}$ probably contains the verb $\bar{\imath}$, to do.

The imperative of the first person plural is formed by adding $l\bar{a}$ - $j\bar{e}$; thus, \bar{a} -ser- $l\bar{a}$ - $j\bar{e}$, let us make merry. $J\bar{e}$ is probably identical with the future suffix $y\bar{e}$.

The usual suffix of the Imperative is $t\vec{a}$; thus, da- $t\vec{a}$, eat; ji- $t\vec{a}$, give. In \bar{a} -t- $k\bar{u}$, come in again, $t\vec{a}$ has been shortened to t.

Another suffix of the imperative is ba. It usually refers to an action which ought to take place in future. Thus, jibba, give. Compare Infinitive of purpose.

The suffix $y\bar{a}$ - $t\hat{a}$ conveys the idea of continuality; thus, $k\bar{a}$ - $y\bar{a}$ - $t\hat{a}$, watch (continually).

The future is used as an imperative of the first person plural. Thus, $ng\hat{a}$ -lu datlyinn, let us eat.

The suffix of the **Negative Imperative** is $y\bar{o}$, to which in Miri the suffix $k\bar{a}$ is added. Thus, Miri $k\bar{a}-y\bar{o}-k\bar{a}$, Daflā $k\bar{a}-y\bar{o}$, do not see. $Y\bar{o}$ is probably a verb meaning to cease,' to desist.' The usual negative $m\bar{a}$, with the suffix ba, is sometimes used as a prohibitive suffix in Daflā; thus, $k\bar{a}-m\bar{a}-ba$, do not look.

An infinitive or verbal noun is formed by adding the suffix $n\bar{a}m$. Thus, Miri $d\bar{u}m$ - $d\bar$

The suffix of the Infinitive of purpose is $p\ddot{u}$ in Miri and ba in Daflā. Mr. Robinson gives $b\bar{o}$ for Daflā. This suffix is identical with the future suffix, and probably also with the Daflā postposition ba, to, for. The purpose is also sometimes expressed in a periphrastic way by means of the participle 'saying' preceded by a future or an imperative. Thus, Miri $ng\bar{o}m\ b\bar{i}-p\ddot{u}\ em-n\bar{a}\ b\bar{o}m-\bar{a}-t\bar{o}-y\ddot{u}$, me to 'give-will' saying bring-didst? didst thou bring it in order to give it to me? Daflā illyi kā-ilyā-tā ka ha-l \bar{u} -m-tella, 'pigs tend' that saying sent, he sent him in order to tend pigs.

The suffixes $p\ddot{u}$ and ba are usually preceded by other elements.

Miri:

Dafl $ar{a}$:

 $K\bar{a}$ is usually prefixed to $p\ddot{u}$; thus, \bar{a} - $g\bar{e}r$ \bar{i} - $k\ddot{a}$ - $p\ddot{u}$, work to do, in order to

Ba is usually added to da or d, i.e. the short form of $d\tilde{a}$, to be, or to $t\tilde{a}$, to

work. $P\ddot{u}$ is, however, also used alone and the form is then identical with the future. Thus, $ng\tilde{a}$ $g\bar{\imath}$ - $p\ddot{u}$ $mu\dot{\imath}$ - $d\tilde{u}ng$, I going-for $(or\ go\text{-will})$ wish, I wish to go.

intend. The latter form is the usual infinitive of purpose, the former being often used as a verbal noun. Thus, $ai-h\hat{a}-b$ dalā-da-ba $m\bar{u}-tl\bar{a}$, belly-the-for cat-away-to wished, he wished to eat his full; pol bar g-ba \bar{u} -dba $ly\bar{\imath}$ -dne- $p\ddot{\imath}$, month one to-go bewill, it is a month's journey; $ny\bar{\imath}$ -e oml $n\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{a}$ - $b\bar{a}$ \ddot{u} - $ly\bar{a}m$, men poison take-to coming, when the men come in order to take the poison.

Participles.—The relative participles have been dealt with under Relative Pronouns.

Different kinds of adverbial participles are formed by adding postpositions to the verbal noun. Thus, the conditional mood is formed by suffixing mui in Miri and nyi in Daflā, and then adding the locative suffix. Compare Miri $ng\hat{a}$ $k\bar{a}$ -mui- $l\hat{o}$, if I see; Daflā $k\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{a}$ -nyi- $l\hat{a}$, if I happen to see. The suffix am or em, which is usually added to the accusative, is used in the formation of several participles.

Miri:

Dāk-kōm and dá-dem are common suffixes. Both contain the suffix em, preceded by a pronoun kō or da, that. Dāk and dá are forms of the verb substantive. Thus, ka-dāk-kōm, though I saw; ī-dāk-kōm, though doing, but; bū-lū ā-ser-dá-dem ābuiā-na au ā-rēg-lá dūng-ai, they merry-being-that-in eldest son fields-in was, while they were feasting the eldest son was in the fields. These forms consist of a finite verb with a demonstrative pronoun added as a correlative. Bū-lū ā-ser-dá-dem, is lit. 'they feasted, that-in.'

Dafla:

Am is added to the pronoun ka or to the root. Thus, $h\ddot{u}r$ -lyi- $k\ddot{a}m$, when thirsty; \ddot{u} - $ly\ddot{a}m$, when coming, che- $ly\ddot{a}m$, when biting.

The locative suffixes $h\vec{a}$ and $l\vec{a}$ are used in a similar way. Thus, \vec{u} -ly- $h\vec{a}$, in the act of going; $d\vec{a}$ -d- $k\vec{a}$ - $h\vec{a}$, while living; $k\vec{a}$ -t- $l\vec{a}$, though having seen, etc.

The suffix ba, which forms adverbs, is also added to adverbial participles. Thus, ngā da-pā-yā-mā-ba kā-ná-ba sī-lyā-sū-tailyē, I to-cat-get-more-not-as hungerwith dying-be-will, I shall probably die with hunger, not getting anything to cat. A whole sentence may be turned into an adverb by adding ba. Thus, na nyerrā achham lyī-dna-ba lyī-m-ta-ba, thy servant many work-as work-make, let me work like thy servants.

The suffix of the conjunctive participle is $l\bar{a}$ or $n\bar{a}$; thus, Miri or- $sh\bar{u}$ - $l\bar{a}$ $b\bar{\iota}$ - $t\bar{o}$, dividing give, divide and give; $n\bar{o}m$ $a\bar{\iota}$ - $m\bar{o}$ - $p\bar{u}$ em- $n\bar{a}$ $b\bar{\iota}$ - $t\bar{o}$, thee good-do-will saying gave, I gave it to you in order to do you good; Daflā hen $d\bar{a}d$ - $l\bar{a}$ ha benma, senses recovering he said; $rong\bar{a}$ -hokka \bar{u} -k-na $t\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{a}$ -tella, fields-from returned-having (he) heard.

 $L\bar{a}$ is often shortened to l in Daflā, and t, te, and pe are very commonly prefixed. Thus, $d\hat{a}$ -t-la, having been; \ddot{u} -t- $k\ddot{u}$ -la, having returned; $m\acute{a}$ - $y\ddot{u}m$ -t-ella, having spent; $s\acute{a}$ - $l\ddot{u}$ -pe-la, having feasted. Ella is sometimes substituted for $l\ddot{a}$; thus, $n\ddot{u}$ - $l\ddot{a}$ -ella, having taken away. Compare the corresponding forms in the present and past tenses.

There is no Passive voice. 'I am struck' must be translated 'somebody struck me.'

Compound verbs are freely formed in order to modify the meaning. Thus:-

Miri:

 $g\bar{\imath}$ - \bar{a} to-go-enter, to come; $t\bar{a}t$ -ken, to-hear-know, to understand; $l\bar{u}$ - $b\bar{\imath}$, to-say-give, to explain; $g\bar{e}$ - $k\bar{\imath}$, to-wear-measure, to try on clothes; $\bar{a}p$ - $k\bar{e}$, to-shoot-kill, to shoot to death, etc.

Daflā:

nā-len, to-take-come-out, to take out; ben-nyā, to-sing-finish, to finish singing; kā-chin, to-see-know, to recognize; gā-kā, to-wear-see, to try on clothes, etc. The different members of a compound may be separated by intervening words. Thus, hā āb ha nām arrā hok len ā-t-kū ha-tla, then father that came-out 'enter-now' said, then the father came out and asked hīm to enter. Len and ha here form a kind of compound. In this way all co-ordinate verbs may be treated, it being unnecessary to add the tense suffixes more than once in a sentence.

Causals are formed by suffixing the verb 'to do,' Miri $m\bar{o}$, Dafiā ma or m. Thus, Miri $g\bar{e}$ - $m\bar{o}$ -to- $k\bar{a}$, to-wear-cause; Dafiā \bar{u} -m-tella, to-go-caused, sent. The verb $m\bar{o}$ or ma is also used alone, and sometimes also used as the first component of a compound. Thus, Miri sim in- $k\bar{a}$ -lok $m\bar{o}$ - $d\bar{u}$ -na, this what-from make? what is this made of? $m\bar{o}$ -pet, to-do-tear, to tear; Dafiā $m\bar{a}$ - $y\bar{u}m$, to waste; $m\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{u}b$, to kiss.

Desideratives are formed by adding $l\ddot{u}$ or ling-a in Miri, and nu in Daflā. Thus, Miri $ng\acute{a}$ \ddot{a} - $s\ddot{\imath}$ $t\ddot{u}$ - $l\ddot{u}$ - $d\ddot{u}ng$, I water drink-wishing-am, I wish to drink water; Daflā $ng\acute{a}$ $k\ddot{a}$ -nu- $d\acute{a}$, I wish to see. The verb mui, to wish, is preceded by the infinitive. See Infinitive of purpose above.

The suffix of potentiality is $l\bar{a}$. Thus, Miri $ng\hat{a}$ $k\bar{a}$ - $l\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{u}$, I can see; $b\bar{u}$ - $l\bar{u}$ $l\bar{u}$ - $l\bar{a}$ -pui-ai, they could tell; Daflā $ng\hat{a}$ ta- $l\bar{a}$ - $s\bar{u}$ -dna, I to-hear-able-am. Miri also possesses another suffix veg; thus, $ng\hat{a}$ $k\bar{a}$ -veg- $d\bar{u}ng$, I can see.

Other words added in order to form compound verbs are :-

Miri:

 $\bar{a}m$ and in, all, completely; $d\bar{\imath}$, perhaps, probably; $g\bar{o}r$, quickly; $k\bar{\imath}r\bar{a}m$, nearly; $k\bar{u}$, back, again; $p\bar{a}k$, out, away; $p\bar{o}$, first; $t\bar{\imath}$ - \hat{a} , always, etc. Thus, $d\hat{a}$ - $\bar{a}m$ - $t\bar{u}ng$ - $\bar{a}m$, to-eat-all-drink-all, to waste; $s\bar{\imath}$ - $k\bar{\imath}r\bar{a}m$ - $t\bar{\imath}ur$ - $k\bar{\imath}r\bar{a}m$ - $d\bar{\imath}ng$, dying-nearly-living-nearly-am, I am on the point of death; $b\bar{o}m$ - $t\bar{o}$ - $k\bar{u}$, I brought back; $m\bar{e}$ - $p\bar{a}k$, to put away, to transgress; $k\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{o}$ - $t\bar{o}$, he saw first; $g\bar{o}r\bar{\imath}u$ $g\bar{\imath}$ - $t\bar{\imath}$ -a- $d\bar{\imath}ng$ -ai, cow going-always-was, the now used to go.

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Dafla:

 \bar{a} giving an intensive force to the compound; cho, first; ki and $y\bar{a}k$, forming frequentatives; $k\bar{u}$, back, again; $l\bar{a}$, away; $ly\bar{u}m$, entirely; $m\bar{\iota}n$, together; $m\bar{\iota}r$, wrongly; $r\bar{u}$, towards, etc. Thus, $d\hat{a}\cdot\bar{a}$, to sit down; pat-a $q\hat{a}\cdot ki-danna$, the bird is always flying; $ng\hat{a}$ $k\bar{a}\cdot p\bar{a}\cdot gel-k\bar{u}$, I found again; mindui $s\bar{\imath}$ - $ly\bar{u}m$ -namma, buffaloes die-entirely-did, all the buffaloes died; $s\hat{a}\cdot m\bar{\imath}n-da-ba$, dancing-together-for, in order to feast; $ng\hat{a}$ $ly\bar{\imath}$ - $m\bar{u}r$ -tella, I did-

wrongly, I sinned; ha ben-rū-namma, he said-towards, he answered.

The Negative particle is $m\tilde{a}$, in Miri also $m\tilde{a}ng$. It may be put before or after the tense suffixes. These latter suffixes are, however, usually dropped in the negative form. Thus,

Miri:

ai-mā-na, good-not-being, bad; ngá nītōm mō-māng-ai, I sing did not, I did not sing; ngá ē-lū-lá dū-māng-ai, I boat-in was-not; ngá mē-pāk-tō-māng, I transgressed not; bui dū-māng, he did not stay, etc.

The suffix $g\bar{e}$ is substituted for $y\bar{e}$ before the negative particle in the future; thus, bui $ng\bar{o}m$ $p\bar{a}$ - $g\bar{e}$ - $m\bar{a}$, he me strike-will-not, he will not strike me. The same suffix $g\bar{e}$ occasionally also occurs in other forms. Thus, $g\bar{e}$ - $g\bar{e}$ -to- $k\bar{a}$, go; $d\hat{a}$ - $g\bar{e}$ - $l\bar{a}$ \bar{a} -ser- $l\bar{a}$ - $j\bar{e}$, eating let-us-make-merry, let us eat and make merry.

 $K\bar{a}$ is substituted for $d\bar{u}ng$, to be, in the negative form. Thus, \bar{a} - $s\bar{\imath}$ - \bar{a} - $b\bar{u}$ - $l\hat{a}$ \bar{e} - $ng\hat{a}$ $k\bar{a}$ - $m\bar{a}ng$, river-in fish is-not, there is no fish in the river.

The Interrogative particles are na, \bar{a} , $y\ddot{u}$, and $l\bar{a}ng\bar{a}$. After the future in $p\ddot{u}$ only \bar{a} is used. $Y\ddot{u}$ is a disjunctive particle, and $l\bar{a}ng\bar{a}$ is the negative interrogative. Thus, $\bar{e}-k\bar{u}m-a$ in- $k\dot{a}-l\dot{a}$ $d\bar{u}-na$, house where is? where is the house? $n\dot{a}$ $ng\bar{o}m$ $b\bar{v}-pui-\bar{a}$, thou me-to give wilt? will you give it to me? $\bar{a}-s\bar{v}-a$ $a-r\bar{v}-d\bar{u}-y\bar{u}$, is the water deep (or not)? $n\dot{a}$ $g\bar{v}-m\bar{a}-l\bar{a}ng-\bar{a}$, didst thou not go?

Daflā:

īk-ha chem-mā-denna, dog-the biting-notis, the dog does not bite; nyī ākk nekhrām hog-jā ji-mā-tella, man one even anything gave-not, nobody gave him anything; ngā-lu chem-mā, we know-not; ngā dā-t-mā, I was-not; ha ma-d-mā, he will not strike, etc.

The Interrogative particle is $ly\bar{e}$. It is usually omitted when the sentence contains an interrogative pronoun. $Y\bar{u}$ is, however, often added after hog-ba, why? Thus, $ishi\ \bar{u}$ - $r\bar{a}$ -dan- $ly\bar{e}$, is the water deep? $h\hat{a}$ $\hat{a}ddan\ ha$ $hog\ ma$ -dna, this sound this what is? what is this sound?

Other words are freely used as verbs. Thus, Miri $b\hat{a}$ -ta- $r\bar{u}$ -na \bar{a} - $k\bar{a}l$ - $t\bar{o}$, great-verybeing famine-arose; $k\bar{e}$ - $m\bar{o}$ - $y\bar{e}$, it will get dark; Daflā $s\bar{\imath}$ sat ta-ba- $ly\bar{e}$, this elephant male is? is this a male elephant? $ng\hat{a}$ Podu-ga $k\hat{a}$ -a, I Podu's son-am; $h\hat{a}$ $ny\bar{\imath}$ ha audenna, this man this tall-is.

Order of words.—The usual order of words is subject, object, verb. The direct object precedes the indirect one in Miri, but follows it in Daflā. In interrogative sentences Miri agrees with Daflā.

[No. 2.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. NORTH ASSAM GROUP.

DAFLĀ.

SPECIMEN 1.

(R. C. Hamilton, Esq., I.C.S., 1900.)

āb dâ-tlā, kâ a-nyi-gâ dâ-tlēya. Ainyâ-yã-a Lok āk nyī Young-more father one was. 80ns two Once manwere. jibba.' 'āb-à. ngål-ga darāb hok ngā-n nemma sī-jā hām benma. give.' property from me-to sharenow said. father, our the-toHA kâ-kuâ hūll-ba darāb hām āh pen-jī-tlā. Hâ ha That after property divided-gave. father the them-to the Then müllî-ja hām nū-lai-ella ā-pa-gâ dâ-tla müga darāb ainvâ-yā ha gathering thathis allthedays-few staying property nyedai-nyet-ma-min-la darab-patch ū-nna. Ηâ gūdā hâ gūdā-ba ā-dâ That country that-in merry-making property far country-to went. hâ gūdā dàd-kâ-hâ mūllūngām mâ-yūm-tella. Hab mâ-yūm-telia country wasted-having remaining-while that Thus allwasted. da-pā-mā-tla. Hà durrē ū-tlā, mü-g ai ho-b hâ Then that belly that-for to-eat-got-not. arose, his great famine that-in hē rongâ-hâ, Ηâ nyi āk-ga dâk hâ ā-tlā. gūdā-ga nyī country-of man one-of presence that-in went. thatfields-in, That man ū-m-tella. Illyi da-nām da-nām aihi hok ha-l 'illyi kā-il-yā-tâ,' ka seeds that-from eaten eatenthat saying go-made. Pigstend.' 'pigs hām ākk ne-khrām hâ nyī mū-tlā ; hâ-b da-lū-da-ba nyī ai thatthat-to maneven the-for eat-full-to one wished; man bellu āb-ga nyerrā-atchām ha ngâ ji-mā. Hen-dad-la ha benma, hog-jā my father's servants anything gave-not. Senses-recovering he said, kā-pā-tella, ngâ ūttu anyina da-dba kā-pā-tella, dellē då-dba dekhyenga excess superfluous remain-to found, I found, eat-tobread enough dâk āb-ga sákka kā-nâ-ba sī-lyā-sū-tailyē. Ngâ da-pā-yā-mā-ba here-from father's presence to-eat-find-not-as hunger-with die-am-about-to. Ι ūī-son hām lā nâ-nyām ngâ lā hâ ū-t-lyinne ben-tailne, "āb. $n\bar{a}m$ you-troo-to say-will, "father, thee-to and God to andthe-in go-will nyerrä-atchäm nâ lyi-yā-kū-mā. Ngām hab kâ lyī-mūr-tella; nâ servants thy Мe did-more-not. as thy 80N did-wrong; hâkka müg āb-ga mū-lā-ella lyi-m-ta-ba." Hab lvi-dna-ba hi8 father's thought-having that-from work-make." Thus work-as 4 H 2 VOL. III, PART L.

āb ha kā-pā-tella ü-il-nām Okka ādâ ū-tlā. dâk-ba thefather coming see-happening Butfar-off went.presence-to må-püb-tella. Kâ-a benma, 'āb, lūpā gar-gāb-lā yâ-rū-lā ai-ā-mū-pā-lā Son said, 'father, neck embracing kissed.running-towards pitying ngâ lyī-mūr-tella; nâ kâ hab hām lā nâ-nyām lā ñī-son ทลิฑ I did-wrong: thy sonandyou-two-to as andGod to thee-too ha nyerrā-atchām hām benma, 'ngâ müllīja āb lviyā-kū-mā.' Okka allgarments the-to said,'my servants But father the did-more-not.' a-nū-ba nā-len-gadlā hām $s\bar{a}m$ āl-vā-nn ezzhām than, good-more-being quickly taking-out-bringing himthe garment āl hâ lukhlâ tā tā letchlâ ga-m-tâ, ga-m-tâ, sa kâ-m-tâ. ā-lā hâ footshoealsoput, on also ring put,012 cow put-on-let, hand bō-ā-gad-ala pakhr-tâ, ngâl da-tlyinn ā-hâ ha-n kâ iit-nām sâ young fatted kill, we eat-will heart-in bringing here femalemnâk làk lyi-tlyinnë? ngâ sĩ ūī Hog-ba hab kâ khrūm-dba. ghost country do-shall? thisfrom Why thus mų soncontent-to. ha-lyi-ba, kā-pā-gel-kū; nyīnām, kā-pā-gel-kū.' Hokka chā-lin-lyi-k-na (I-) saw-again; (I-) saw-again. Then like, lost,rise-out-does-again-who lyi-rāb-namma. hūllii sâ-min-dab they dance-together-to began.

hokka ha rongâ hâ lyī-tla. Ronga Okka kâ a-bū ū-k-na pām elderfields in worked. Fieldsfrom returning house Butsonthatlã dūm-dūm $t\bar{a}l$ lā sâ-mīn ü-lv-kū-lā toppū ma â-gum-hâ cymbalflute and dancing coming-back drumplaying and near tā-pā-tella. 'hâ âdna-mām Ηâ nyerrā ākk-gâ gâ-la tach-namma, heard. Then 'that sound-making servant onecalling asked. ma-dna?' Nyerrā ha 'nâ ha âddan ha hog benma, bor makes?' Servant the younger-brother that whatsaid, 'thy sound thatü-t-kū-la. nâ āb nâ bor-am ālla ū-k-namma come-back-having, thy father thyyounger-brother wellreturned hā-hā-ālla kâ pakh-lä. Hām tātlā kā-pā-kū-la jitna $h\bar{a}m$ sakilled. This seen-again-having cow young fat thathearing angry-being ā-k-mā-tlā. Ηâ nām hâ āh ha. nām arrü hok len. from came-out, entered-not. Then father house the-in thehouse inside 'ā-t-kū.' ha-tla. Okk áb ha hām ben-rū-namma, 'taiā, tâsinā, But 'come-inside,' said. he father 'hear, look, the-to answered, āllâ nām ha-da nyī müllā nâ benām hām tellū-tella-lā so-many years days-in thee on-behalf-of thy word thatobeyed-having-and lyi-t-namma, okka ngâ ā-zin-orūm lag-hâ da-tā-ba så-min-daba sibin nâ worked. butmy friends witheating-for feasting-for goat thou ji-mā; okka nā dor-g khrām darāb-patch kå ha $\mathbf{n}\mathbf{\hat{a}}$ nū-lā-ella thygavest-not; but son that one even thy property taking-away

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så-lū-pela lag-ba ŭ-d-kŭ-n jītnām hām kâ nyemm sawithfeasted-having returning that-to fatted young women cow pakh-ji-ä-khrām-nyā.' Āb ۴kâ, nâ ngâ lag-ba ha benma. kill-give-even-didst.' Father the withsaid, 'son, thoume darāb-patch mūllū-sī nā-ka mā-ba hī-ga? Okka hog-ba dâ-ki-sû-dna, ngâ thine not-if whose? But remainest-always, my property all-this hab lyī-mā-tailne? Nâ tūr-dâ-dâ; nyīm-tella, bor ha sī-tla, Thy younger-brother this died-having, alive-is; lost-being, thus do-not-shall? kā-pā-gel-kū.' found-again-is.

PIATE CERTIFICATION OF THE PERSON OF THE PER

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. NORTH ASSAM GROUP.

DAFLĀ.

SPECIMEN II.

(R. C. Hamilton, Esq., I.C.S., 1900.)

Ngå-lu Nyī-sing-a ōpū-hâ omlāp-denna. Oml dâk tāl-ba WeDaflás arrows-on poison put. Poison place up-to halyi nanga sâka la bar-g-ba pol ũ-dba lyi-d-ne-pü. Ngâ-lu plains villages here-from and moonone-about go-to be-will. WeNyī-sing-a hâ ū-t-mā. Aiāng-a omlnā-l pā-dna. Oml sün-a chā Daflās there go-not, Abors poison bringing supply. Poison treeteaOml-a sün mem hâ sün-a hab lyī-dna. dâ-dna. Mem eyin hab lyi-dna. tree thusis.Poison tree root inis.Root potato thus is. Ked hokka dū-l nā-dna. Sün ha jelyū hâ dâ-dna; üllü Ground from digging take. Tree the marshy-ground on is: stony lün â-gūm-hâ dâ-dna; hâ â-gūm-hâ dür derā tāppām-a då-dne. rocknear is; thatnear summer winter. snow remains. Ullū lün au-wâ tab mülli-gå då-dne. Tab satne nyî har-po Stony rocktop-on snakesmany are. Snakes' girth man's legdâ-dne. Kāyā-ba ${
m l}ar{
m a}$ chanyi haba lyi-dna; e-hi hom-gâ āssâ-denna. Blackish and yellow is.likeare; teeth three (-fingers) long-are. Tab-a nyī-am che-lyam, sī-dna. Nyi-c omlnā-tā-ba ü-lyām ŭllū Snake man biting. dies. Men poison bring-to coming stone hokka tab-a pâl-lā nyī-am che-dna. Nyī nikhrü hokka illyi ā-ngâ-ne from snakes dropping men bite.Men twenty from tenfive-or tab-a che-dna. oggO porâ illyi sab sa lâ-lā ũī pātna, snakes bite. Liquor fowls pigs mithons cows offering God appease-wish, ũĩ pā-mā-lyām nyadang-a hodna: ishi tā-lā oml kā-pā-mā-dna: God appeased-not rain falls; waterdown-coming poison see-cannot; mūlling-a sī-dna. nyî Oml-a a-hâ àb-na a-nū-ba sī-dna, ā-lâ-hâ men die.Poison body-in striking many quickly die.arm-in āh-na hāsobba sī-dna. Aiang-a dorob chen-dna. ngâ-lu chem-mā. striking slowly die. Abors antidote know. weknow-not. Oml āb-nām nyī hàm kâ bū-na nvemm-a khrå-tā-lyām āl Poison

struck man child bearing thatwoman stepping-over well du-k-na hatna; nyī ũĩ hām issha tâ-yâ-tella tū-lyām āl becomes-again 8ay ; man's blood thatwater mixing drinking well du-k-na hatna. becomes-again say.

DAFLĀ. 607

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

We Daflas tip our arrows with poison. The place where it is obtained is a month's journey from the plains. We Daflas do not go there, the Abors bring it down. The tree yielding the poison is like a tea tree; the poison is in the root, which is like a potato and is dug out of the earth. The bushes grow on level ground near a great rock, round which snow lasts all the year round. On the top of it are many snakes, the largest being as big round as a man's leg. They are black and yellow, with teeth three fingers' breadth in length. If one bites a man, he dies. When men come to dig for the poison, the snakes drop down from the top of the rock and bite them; out of twenty they bite five or ten.

The men offer up liquor, fowls, pigs, mithon, and cows in order to appease God. If they do not, rain falls and the floods cover the poison place, and many men are killed.

A man struck on the body with a poisoned arrow dies at once; but if struck on the arm he dies after a few hours. The Abors know of an antidote; we do not.

But they say that if a woman who has just borne a child steps over the wounded man he recovers, also if he drinks human blood mixed with water.

[No. 4.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. NORTH

NORTH ASSAM GROUP.

MIRI.

SPECIMEN I.

(F. J. Needham, Esq., 1896.)

(DISTRICT LAKHIMPUR.)

Āmē-na² au-da bui-ka ābū-em bui-ka au¹ ānyīkâ dūngai. ākō existed. The-younger son-he hisfather-to Man a-certain him-of sons twoDēlō kōsāg-em bī-kā. bui hū-lūm 'bābū, ngâ-ka āttār Then he my of-(our)-property sharegive-(me).' them-to father. said.ēkūm-lâ long bâjē ānjāna-da³ ai-ka dūāttār-em orshū-lā bī-tō. Au small-the his-own home-at days many staythe-property dividing gave. Son lāng-kūm-lā4 mōē-na deg āpuidem ākon-là māng. Bui-ka āttār a-far collecting-together country some-to alldid-not. Hisproperty āttār āpuing-em sīmāt-kēshā-pü dâām-tungām-to.6 gī-lā ai-ka wasted. allfoolishly (he)-went-away-(and) his-own property Bui-ka āttār apuing-em sīmāt-kēshā-pü dâām-tüngām rosim deg da lâ in-a-foolish-manner wasting after country that in His property allbui-ka8 dâ-nam sin kā-tō-māng. Dēlō bui da bâta-rū-na ākāl⁷-tō: food even he-had-not. Then he that country-of a-mighty famine-occurred; his ākon⁹-lâ āger-ī-kā-pü10 gī-kāng; āmī ēek āmī buim ārēg-lâ \mathbf{da} man a-certain-with work-to the-field-into swine went; man thathim kenō-rū13-dūngai. āpīn-bī-kā-pü malik-tō. Bui Dēpīlā $ar{\mathbf{e}}\mathbf{e}\mathbf{k}$ āmpü-em bui He^{11} he to-feed sent. hungry-very-was. Therefore the-pigs husksdá-lü-dūngai; dålü-dākkōm¹³ kāmāng. dânam bī-na to-eat-wishing-was; although-desirous-(of-food) there-was-not. given food

¹ had two sons is rendered 'his two sons existed'; buika is genitive of bui, he.

² na is the termination of a relative participle.

³ da is merely the demonstrative pronoun used here for emphasis and recognition; au-anjana-da meaning 'the younger son in question.'

⁴ lang-kumla is a compound verb meaning to collect, gather together.

⁵ sīmāt = fool, kēshā-pü = like. pü is the adverbial suffix.

^{&#}x27;Miris (like the Assamese) have no word equivalent to our word 'waste' and no words to express 'riotous living.' Wasted his substance in riotous living' would be rendered tār bûstu hakal kai phelāilē in Assamese and it is the same in Miri, viz., dûām-tüngām-tō = (literally) ate and drank everything.

⁷ ākāl is the Assamese word for famine. Miris have no word.

^{*} buika dânam sin kātōmāng means lit. 'His food even existed not,' i.e., he had not even food.

⁹ āmī-ākon = man-someone.

 $[\]bar{a}ger-\bar{i}-k\bar{a}-p\ddot{u}$ is a compound verb meaning to do work. $K\bar{a}-p\ddot{u}$ is the sign of the infinitive of purpose.

¹¹ This is the only construction possible to make this portion of the parable comprehensible in Miri.

¹² This ru is a superlative particle, for instance ai, good; ai-ru, very good; bate, big, large; bate-ru, very large.

¹⁸ Adverbial participle; dākkom here means 'although.'

Bui-ka sīmāt-aidâ-kū-dem bui lū-tō. 'ngâ-ka bābū-ka¹ pāk-bō-kiding-ka³ Hissenses-recovering-upon ' my he said. father's dânam pui-lā sin ngat-dâ, kenō-lā sīkīram-tūrkīram3 dūng. ngâ aiyü having-sufficed also remains-over, I myself hungering at-death's-door Ngâ bābū lå gī-lā lū-pū, "ngå Ishar' me tē nôm tē pāp-i-tō. I (my) father to going say-will, "I God against and gourself and nâ-ka au-pü ngōm gâg-vō-vong-kā,5 ngōm pāk-bō-pü mē-to-kā." Dela your son-like call-no-longer, me a-slave-like me keep." Then bui ai-ka bābū lâ gī-kāng, mōtē lokke bui-ka bābū buim kā-lā he his-own father to went, far from hisfather him seeing pitied (him). goldon6 lâ ōlet-lā māmpuk-tō. Au-da bui-ka bābū-em lū-tō, His neck upon falling (he)-kissed-(him). The-son-he hisfather-to said. 'ngâ Ishar me tē nōm tē pāp-ī-tō, dē-pī-lā ngâ nâ-ka 'I God and against yourself and sin-did. consequently Ι your kēshā-mā. au Bui-ka bābū ai-ka pāk-bō-kiding-em lū-tō, like-am-not. His 807 father his-own slaves-to said. 'gāsōr āpui-lokem-pünam-aina-kâ buim gē-mō-tokā; bui-ka bōm-lā ālāk all-from-than-good-one having-brought himput-it-on: his finger lâ āngūtī-ākâ,7 bui-ka ālē lâ ngâ-lū āpīn-dâgē-lā tē jūtāng^s gē-mō-tokā; unon hisfeet upon also shoesput; 248 eating āser-lājē. Ngâ-lū-ka au tür-düng-kü: sim sī-lā, vog-lā. be-merry-let. Our this having-died, has-returned-to-life-again; being-lost, 80n pā-tō-kū.' Dēlō bū-lū āser-tō. (he-has)-been-found-again. Then they made-merry.

äser-då-dem⁹ bui-ka ābuiā-na lâ dūngai: Bū-lū au ārē⊈ bui They while-were-merrying10 his eldest son the-fields he in was: mākshâ-shânām11 lāng dūmdūm-dū12-nām-em tat-tō. ai-ka ēkūm pui-lā Hehis-own house (on)-nearing dancing and drumming heard. Pāk-bō lū-tō, nākbō ākâ gåg-lā tau-tō, 'kāpī-kān ngâ-lū-ka ēkūm là?' calling asked, 'what-matter house at?' The-slave said. slaveour pui-dung-ku: nâ-ka bābū 'nâ-ka buirâ ai-pü dē-pī-lā āmī-em 'your brother safely has-returned-again; consequently your father men

¹ ka = possessive case suffix.

² kiding is an adjective used to denote plurality.

³ sikiram türkiram is a colloquial phrase meaning 'on the point of death.'

⁴ Ishar is an Assamese word. Miris have no word for God. They believe in spirits called Oyū.

This is the only manner in which the sentence 'Am no more worthy to be called thy son' can be rendered in Miri, viz., 'call me no longer your son.' Vong is a completive particle, yo kā the negative imperative case suffix.

⁶ goldon is an Assamese word. Miris have no other word for neck.

⁷ angūtī is also an Assamese word, Miris having no word for a ring, though they wear many.

^{*} jūtāng is from the Hindostānī word jūtā, a shoe.

addem is the sign of the adverbial participle.

¹⁰ This sentence 'While they were merrying' is necessary in Miri in order to carry on the sense.

¹¹ mākshā shānām is a compound verb meaning 'to dance.'

¹³ dü is to beat a drum. Dümdüm = drum; dümdüm dünām, to beat a drum.

āpīn-em-dâ-mō-dūng.' Dēlō ābuiā-na gåg-lā bū-lū-m au dafeeding-is.' Then having-called-(together) them elderson the Bui-ka bābū āglī-lā ārā-lâ gī-pü-mui-māng. gī-len-lā ēkūm buim angering the-house within-to go-will-wished-not. Hisfather going-out himkūm-lā gōk-tō. Abuiā-na au da ai-ka bābū-em lū-tō, 'nâ-ka āgēr entreating called. Elder son the his-own father-to said, your work bâjē-rūng-ka lok-ke ngâ ī-dūng. Lēkōtē nâ-ka dūtāk āgōm-em ngã many I am-doing. from Any-time your orders years Ι më-pak-to-mang. Mē-pāk-māng-kōm nâ ngōm ājon-kiding dâ-mō-kā-pü desregarded-have-not. Not-disregarding-though you me-to (my)-friends to-feed sāgölī-ka sin lēkōtē bī-māng. Na-ka ānjā-na au au bui nâ-ka a-goat-of the-young even Your younger ever gave-not. he80n your āttār-em sîmāt-pü dâām-tüngām-tō-vong, īdākkōm nâ buim bhoi1 property in-a-foolish-manner has-wasted-completely, himbut you a-feast Bui-ka bābū lū-tō, bī-dūng.' 'aua, nâ ngà-ka-lâ āgin-pü dūng; ngâ-ka His father said, are-giving. 'son, you me-with always are; my āttār āpuidem nâ-ka; nà-ka buirâ sī-lā, tūr-dūng-kū: allproperty (is)-yours; your brother being-dead, has-returned-to-life-again; yog-lä, pā-dūng-kū: dē-pī-lā ngâ-lũ āser kāndūai.' being-lost, has-been-found-again; therefore ought-to-be.' we happy

¹ they is an Assamese word. Miris have no word for feast.

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY.

NORTH ASSAM GROUP.

MIRI.

STANDARD DIALECT.

SPECIMEN I.

(DISTRICT LAKHIMPUR.) (F. J. Needham, Esq., 1899.) dapīō-kā-pū3 $s\bar{i}^1$ mainam.2 gī-māng. Sĩ güsör Ngâ bui-ka ēkūm This I to-steal did-not-go. is-false. at-his case this house Dhonirām lok-ke f Agomsim-pü dūng. Ngâ-ka monying Words Dhaniram from Mylast-year this-wise are. kādākkōm ākŭna rěnám görü da yök-kai. Görü da dadana ai-pu ngâ was-lost. Cow it however well cared-for-though oldΙ purchased cow it lem-üm-kâ ngâ gi-lā rūtūm-ka ēkūm-lâ gī-tī-â-dūngai; dēpīlā le-nyī Ι three-times going master's going-always-was; therefore twice house-to rosim bui-ka ēkūm Dhonirām-ka lū-dâ longâ-dem dânyī-wā bom-tō-kū. ngâ hishouse after Dhaniram day-in Ι brought-back. said8un-8et ārālā kōnō-malō Ngâ bui-ka bārī lâ ai-ka mata-kā-pü gī-kā. görü before I his compound through search-for went. cow to my-own Dhonirām-ka buirma muimbuir-da āsī gī-gōr-dâ-dem kēshā sister the-grown-up-one Dhanirām's water like strolling-about-at-the-time-of ngom bhūt Dēlo kemo-ķāvīng; bui рü kā-lā bom-lā gī-dūng. ki-ling she me ghost like seeina it-was-dark; pitcher bringing coming-is. Then āmī-kiding4 lang Dhoniram gi-len-lä ngōm Dēlō bui-ka ēkūm ngom-tō. and her house people Dhaniram coming-out. Then screamed. 'nâ mümbuir sim dâpīō-kā-pū lū-tō gāg-lā gāg-tō, 'you young-girl thisto-steal seizing (or having seized me) said seized. polis-em mēlām-pü Sim āgōm sim Dhonirām lū-tō, beang gī-dūng.' thispolice-to told. but afterwards Dhanirām Thisstory are-coming. Bui dēlō lū-tō ngå bui-ka ai dâpīō āngū-pü lū-tō. bui ādālot Ι his differently said. He then said fruit stealing he Court taiō-lâ5 kā-pō-tō. ursing Mālōtī ngōm düngai, see-first-did. Mālōtī intree me

was,

¹ The second si is used for emphasis.

² Mainam is an adjective used as a verb.

^{*} Dápīō-kā-pü is the infinitive of purpose; dápīō is the root of the verb.

^{*} Kiding is the sign of the plural.

[&]quot; Ursing taio-la means lit. ' tree top in.'

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

This case is false. I did not go to steal anything at his house. The facts are these. I missed my cow which I had bought from Dhanirām a year ago. The cow though carefully kept by me used to visit her former owner's house very often, and I had to go and fetch her several times. On the day referred to by Dhanirām I went to his house to see if my cow had gone there. That was after sunset. I walked through his compound as usual to see whether my cow was straying there. It so happened that at the time his sister Mālōtī, a grown-up girl of 18 years, came to the compound with a water-pot in her hand. It was then nearly dark. She saw me unexpectedly going to wards her though I myself had not noticed her. She got frightened and screamed as if she thought I was a ghost. The people of the house, including Dhanirām, came and seized me, saying that I had come there to visit the girl. That was the story Dhanirām told to the Police, but in the Court, in order to hide the shame of the sister, he gives out that I was stealing his mangoes and that Mālōtī saw me first on the tree.

MISHMI.

The Mishmis inhabit the mountains lying north of the Assam Valley from the Dibang River in the west to about the Lama valley or Dzayul, a sub-prefecture of Lhassa, in the east. They have been found in settlements as far south as the Nemlang River, an offshoot of the Irawaddy, and their colonies sweep round to the east of the great mountain called the Dapha Bhum, and then up the Brahmaputra proper to the confines of Tibet.

The Mishmi villages to the south of the Brahmaputra are scattered and mixed up with Khāmtī and Singphō settlements. To the north and west we find the tribe in possession of the whole country.

'The Mishmis,' says Lieutenant G. L. S. Ward, 'are small, active, wiry men, with very high cheek bones, flat noses and a general Mongolian cast of feature.'

Their country is rugged and difficult of access. There has, therefore, been little intercourse between them and the British. Only 220 Mishmis have been returned for this Survey as living within British territory. They are found in the north-east of Lakhimpur, on the south side of the Brahmaputra. At the last Census of 1901 only 71 speakers were returned.

There are four main divisions of the Mishmis, each sub-divided into numerous minor clans. The four divisions are Chulikātā, Bebejiya, Digāru, and Mījū.

The Chulikātā Mishmis are settled on both banks of the Dibang River and, to the east of it, so far at the Digāru River. Some of the larger and richer villages are situated at the Dibang north of Kaladoi towards Tibet. They are the most numerous tribe of the Mishmis.

The name Chulikātā is used by the Assamese in order to denote the tribe. It means 'crop-haired' and is used because the Chulikātās crop their front hair on the forehead. They call themselves *Midu*, or, according to Mr. Robinson, *Nedu*.

Our knowledge of the dialect of this tribe is based on a list of standard words and phrases in Sir George Campbell's Specimens, which has been reprinted below.

The Bebejiyas or outcast Mishmis occupy the valleys of the Ithun River and its tributaries, between the Chulikātās and the Digārus. The Ithun is a tributary of the Dibang River which it joins at Kaladoi village (about 28° 25' north latitude). The Bebejiyas extend towards the high ranges of the Southern Tibet border on the north, and on the south they are bordered by the Chulikātās. Bebejiya is an Assamese name; they call themselves Mithun.

The Bebejiya dialect is said to be almost identical with Chulikātā. The two tribes also agree in appearance and dress, and they cut their hair in the same manner. They do not, however, intermarry.

The Digārus are settled in the mountains between the Digāru River and the Brahmaputra. They are also called Tārõã, Taiu or Taying, and Meme Mishmis.

Their language has been dealt with by Mr. Robinson. A list of words has been printed by Sir George Campbell, and another one by Mr. J. F. Needham. I have printed a list based on Messrs. Robinson and Needham.

The Mejus or Mijūs are settled to the east of the Digarus and extend towards the Lama valley or Dzayul, a sub-prefecture of Lhassa. Their language is known from

accounts written by Messrs. Robinson and Needham. The list of standard words and phrases printed below has been compiled from both.

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- Campbell, Sie George,—Specimens of Languages of India, including those of the Aboriginal Tribes of Bengal, the Central Provinces, and the Eastern Frontier. Calcutta, 1874. Sulikātā and Digarū Mishmee on pp. 239 and ff.
- Needham, J. F.,—A few Dîgârô (Târoan), (Mîjû) (M*jû), and Thibetian words collected during a trip from Sadiya to Rima and back in December 1885 and January 1886. s. l. and a.
- GAIT, E. A.,—Census of India, 1891. Assam, Vol. I.—Report. Shillong, 1892. Note on the language on p. 186.
- WAED, LIEUTENANT G. L. S.,—Military Report on the Mishmi Country published by the Intelligence Branch, Quarter Master General's Department. Simla, 1901.

The language spoken by the Mishmis is split up into dialects, but all these seem to agree in several points. The remark made by the Rev. N. Brown that Mishmi possesses several very peculiar tones, probably applies to all dialects. We are not, however, informed of the nature of these tones. They perhaps correspond to those current in Tibetan.

CHULIKĀTĀ.

The Chulikātā dialect is apparently closely related to Digāru Mishmi. The list of standard words and phrases published by Sir George Campbell, which is all we know of this dialect, contains several misprints, and it is not sufficient to serve as the basis of a grammatical sketch. It is not possible to do more than to draw attention to a few facts.

A prefix \bar{a} or a plays a great $r\delta le$ in the formation of nouns and adjectives; thus, a-khmo, hand; a-mihu, fire; a-kuna, ear; $\bar{a}-ku$, wife; $\bar{a}-nom\bar{a}$, near, etc. E, i, and u are used in the same way. Thus, e-nabo, nose; $e-l\bar{a}by\bar{a}$, eye; e-kura, head; eppo, slave; i-ni, sun; $i-k\bar{u}$, dog; u-ka, house, etc. Corresponding prefixes are used in Daffa, Miri, and the other Mishmi dialects.

The prefix ma in ma-ji, water, is also found in Digāru $m\bar{a}-ch\bar{i}$, water, etc. $N\bar{a}$ is used as a prefix in the words $n\bar{a}-b\bar{a}$, father, and $n\bar{a}-ni$, mother, corresponding to Digāru $n\bar{a}-b\bar{a}$ and $n\bar{a}-m\bar{a}$ respectively. Ni in $n\bar{a}-ni$ corresponds to Miri and Daflā $\bar{a}-ne$, mother.

Nouns.—Some of the suffixes used to denote gender are identical in Chulikātā and Digāru. The word for woman is $i\bar{a}h$ in Chulikātā which is identical with $y\bar{a}$ in Digāru $m\bar{\imath}-y\bar{a}$, woman. This latter form occurs in Chulikātā a-myau, child-female, daughter, corresponding to Digāru $m\bar{\imath}-y\bar{a}$ \bar{a} . The female suffix a-pi, in Chulikātā corresponds to Digāru $t\bar{a}-p\bar{\imath}$, and the female suffix kro to Digāru $kr\bar{u}$.

The plural is formed in the usual way by adding words meaning 'many,' 'all,' etc. Most of the plural forms enumerated in the list are difficult to analyse, and different words are used in each case. $D\bar{u}$ in $e-k\bar{u}$ $d\bar{u}$, dogs, corresponds to Digāru $d\bar{u}$, many. In $n\bar{u}$ - $b\bar{u}$ $e-j\bar{u}$, fathers, $e-j\bar{u}$ perhaps means 'all'; compare $z\bar{a}$ and $j\bar{a}$, all, in Lushēi and

connected languages. The plural suffix lumbro in prā lumbro, good men, and other forms, seems to occur in the personal pronoun ngia-lumbro, I, and is probably an hencrific or intensifying suffix.

I have not been able to analyse the case suffixes. Ji seems to mean 'to,' or 'from'; jui-bo, of; kepow-ji and $g\bar{a}-jui-bo$, from, etc. The genitive is apparently expressed in the same way as in Digāru by simply putting the governed before the governing noun. Thus, new $n\bar{a}-b\bar{a}$ a, thy father's sons.

Adjectives.—The word for 'good' is pra or prai corresponding to Digāru $pr\bar{a}$. The form prai-bo, good, seems to contain a suffix in corresponding to Daflā $b\hat{a}$, and the Tibetan article pa. The final do in ruen-do, high, is perhaps the verb substantive; compare Daflā and Miri $d\hat{a}$, Digāru $d\bar{i}$.

The adjectives seem to precede the noun they qualify. The same is, however, the case in Sir George Campbell's Digāru, while Messrs. Robinson and Needham state that the adjective always follows the noun in this dialect.

There is apparently no suffix of the comparative. Thus, ruendo ji iruendo, high from high, higher; tapume ji ruendo, all from high, highest. Tapum prai-bo, all good, best, may be compared with $p\bar{a}ng$ $au\cdot y\bar{u}$, all high-more, highest, in Mr. Robinson's Daflā.

Numerals.—The first five numerals agree with those occurring in Digāru. We may note the prefix $k\bar{a}$ in the numerals $k\bar{a}$ -ni, two; $k\bar{a}$ -sh, three, and $k\bar{a}$ -ppi, four. Compare the prefix g in the corresponding Tibetan numerals. $Il\bar{u}$, eight, corresponds to Digāru illam; khi-li, nine, probably means 'one from ten.' Compare Digāru $keny\bar{o}ng$, Miri $k\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{a}ng$. 'Ten' is hush, but another form lon, corresponding to Digāru $h\bar{a}$ - $l\bar{a}ng$, occurs in ma-nga-lon, fifty. The higher numerals are formed as in Digāru by prefixing the multiplier to the numeral 'ten.' Thus, a-ni-hush, twenty; ma-nga-lon, fifty.

Pronouns.—The personal pronouns will be found in the list of words. Some of them are very puzzling. Ngia-lumbro, I, is probably an honorific form. A short form nga occurs in new a nga midu hu- $l\bar{a}$ -pata, his son I much beaten-have, I have beaten his son with many stripes: This form corresponds to $ng\tilde{a}$ in Daflā and Miri. Ngio, thou, is probably miswritten for $ny\tilde{a}$, and new, thy, is probably identical. The forms for the third person apparently contain many misunderstandings. Ngio $\bar{a}pu$, he, seems to mean something like 'thy companion'; compare Singphō a-paung, friend; Burmese paung, to keep company. Mit and $mim\bar{u}t$, his, seem to correspond to Digāru $mt\bar{a}$, he, and he aibu, they, contains the pronoun $h\bar{e}$ which means 'he' in Digāru and 'that' in Daflā. The same pronoun also occurs in heya, this. In etani, to-day, we apparently have another demonstrative pronoun eta; compare Digāru tai-hing, to-day.

The interrogative pronouns are \bar{a} - $\bar{a}ya$ and asia, who? esia, what? $phi\bar{a}h\bar{a}$, how much? how many? Digāru has $sh\bar{a}$, who? and $m'j\bar{a}$, what?

The conjugatior of Verbs cannot be explained from the materials at our disposal. The imperative $b\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{a}$, go, seems to correspond to Digāru $b\bar{o}$ - $n\bar{a}$, go, while forms such as ji- $b\bar{a}$, sit; hi-ba, die; $h\bar{a}$ - $b\bar{a}$, give, etc., contain a suffix $b\bar{a}$ which is used in the same way in Daflā. Most forms, however, are not clear to me.

The preceding remarks on Chulikātā grammar show the close connexion between this dialect and Digāru, and there can be no doubt that they are merely dialects of the same language.

DIGĂRU.

Digāru Mishmi has been dealt with in a short grammatical sketch by Mr. Robinson. The remarks on Digāru grammar which follow are based on this sketch and on the list of words published by Mr. Needham. The spelling is, as far as possible, that of Mr. Needham.

Prefixes.—The most usual prefixes are $m\bar{a}$ and $n\bar{a}$, often abbreviated to m and n, perhaps corresponding to the prefixes ma and n which form nouns and adjectives in Kachin.

 $M\bar{a}$ occurs in words such as $m\bar{a}-j\bar{\imath}$, buffalo; $m\bar{a}-tran$, cow; $m\bar{a}-s\bar{a}ng$, tree; $m\bar{a}-ch\bar{\imath}$, water; $m's\bar{e}$, navel; $m'sh\bar{\imath}$, claw; $m'pl\tilde{a}$, stone; m'dang, poor; $m'j\bar{a}$, what? and so on.

 $N\bar{a}$ is usually prefixed to nouns denoting relationship. Thus, $n\bar{a}$ - $b\bar{a}$, father; $n\bar{a}$ - $m\bar{a}$, mother; $n\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{u}$, elder brother, etc. This $n\bar{a}$ is perhaps originally the possessive pronoun of the second person. The same, or a similar, prefix is, however, also used before other nouns. Thus, $n\bar{a}$ -ming, fire; $n'kw\bar{\imath}$, \log ; $n'g\bar{a}$, near, etc. Compare n' in Kachin.

A prefix $k\bar{a}$ seems to occur in words such as $k\bar{a}$ - $l\bar{o}$, field; $k\bar{a}$ - $r\bar{a}$, rain; $k\bar{a}$ - $ch\bar{\imath}$, rat; $k\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{o}$ -a, dark; $k\bar{a}$ - $r\bar{o}$, quickly. Compare the prefix ka or ga in the Kachin, Bodo, and Nāgā languages.

The prefix \bar{a} or a occurs in words such as \bar{a} - $l\bar{\imath}$, bow; \bar{a} - $pr\ddot{u}$, arm; \bar{a} - $ru\dot{\imath}$, snow; a- $sh\bar{a}$, mithon, etc. It does not appear to be used in the same way as the prefix a in Kachin and Burmese, in order to form nouns from verbs.

Nouns.—Gender is only apparent in the case of animate nouns. The gender of human beings is distinguished by using different words. Thus, $n\bar{a}$ - $b\bar{a}$, father; $n\bar{a}$ - $m\bar{a}$, mother: $p\bar{a}mr\bar{o}$, brother; $m\bar{a}$ - $th\bar{i}$, sister: $m\bar{o}w\bar{a}$, man; $m\bar{i}y\bar{a}$, woman. In other cases, the words $m\bar{o}w\bar{a}$, male, and $m\bar{i}y\bar{a}$, female, are added in order to denote the gender; thus, $m\bar{o}w\bar{a}$, male child, son; $m\bar{i}y\bar{a}$, daughter: m'po $m\bar{o}w\bar{a}$, a male slave; m'po $m\bar{i}y\bar{a}$, a female slave. $M\bar{o}w\bar{a}$ is probably derived from $m\bar{i}$ - $w\bar{a}$, and $m\bar{i}y\bar{a}$ from $m\bar{i}$ - $y\bar{a}$, $m\bar{i}$ meaning human being and the real suffixes being $w\bar{a}$ and $y\bar{a}$. Compare ai- $w\bar{a}$, son, and $ai\bar{a}$, daughter, in Mr. Robinson's vocabulary. Compare the male suffix wa in Kachin.

The usual suffixes in the case of animals are $k\bar{a}r\bar{\imath}$ (Needham) or $kar\ddot{\imath}$ (Robinson), male, and $t\bar{a}p\bar{\imath}$ (Needham) or tassi (Robinson), female. Thus, $n'gu\bar{\imath}$ $k\bar{a}r\bar{\imath}$, a male dog; $n'gu\bar{\imath}$ $t\bar{a}p\bar{\imath}$, a bitch: ma-chu $kar\ddot{\imath}$, a bull; ma-chu tassi, a cow. Other suffixes are $r\hat{\imath}$, male, and $kr\bar{u}$, female; thus, $t\bar{a}my\bar{u}m$ $r\hat{\imath}$, a male monkey; $t\bar{a}my\bar{u}m$ $kr\bar{u}$, a female monkey. In $t\bar{a}\text{-}l\bar{a}$, cock, we have apparently a male suffix $l\bar{a}$, identical with the corresponding suffix in Kachin. 'A hen' is $m'ch\bar{e}$ (Needham) or inteo tassi (Robinson).

Number.—When it is necessary to distinguish the number of a noun, a numeral or some word meaning 'all,' 'many,' etc., is added. Thus, n'guī su-miwe, dog all, dogs.

Case.—The nominative and the accusative do not take any suffix. The genitive is expressed by putting the governed before the governing word; thus, $m\bar{a}$ - $j\bar{z}$ $r\bar{o}$, the buffalo's horn. Other relations are indicated by means of postpositions such as kwa or $k\tilde{o}$, in; do or $d\tilde{o}$, with; $k\bar{o}$ and tappe, from, etc. Thus, $m\bar{a}$ - $sh\bar{\imath}$ $k\tilde{o}$ $sh\hat{a}$ - $n\bar{a}$, water in place, put it in the water; $h\bar{e}$ $dag\hat{a}$ $t\tilde{o}$ n $gu\bar{\imath}$ $s\bar{e}gonde$, he dao with dog kill-will, he will kill the dog with his dao; $m\bar{a}$ - $s\bar{a}ng$ $h\bar{a}bang$ $k\bar{o}$ $ch\bar{e}$ - $n\bar{a}$, wood jungle from bring, etc.

Adjectives.—Adjectives follow the noun they qualify. Thus, $m\bar{a}$ - $ch\bar{i}$ $r\bar{u}m\bar{a}$, water deep; $m\bar{a}$ - $j\bar{i}$ da-rang, buffalo large; $n'gu\bar{i}$ \bar{a} - \bar{a} , a small dog.

There are no suffixes of the comparative. Mr. Robinson mentions that the adjective may get a prolonged or shortened pronunciation in order to denote a high or low degree. Thus, $k\tilde{a}$ -long, long, may be pronounced with a lengthening out of the sound. It then means 'very long.' In a similar way katyoa, short, may be pronounced with a short and abrupt sound in order to convey the idea of 'very short.'

Numerals.—The numerals are given in the list of words. They follow the noun they qualify. Thus, n'guī kā-prei, dog four, four dogs.

The numbers 11-19 are formed by adding the numerals 'one,' 'two,' etc., to 'ten;' thus, $h\bar{a}l\bar{u}$, or $h\bar{a}long$, khing, ten one, eleven; $h\bar{a}l\bar{u}$ sāng or halo ra-chong, thirteen, etc. Ra in ra-chong (Robinson) probably means 'and;' compare $l\bar{a}$ in Daflā and Miri. The numerals 20-90 are formed by prefixing 'two,' 'three,' etc., to $h\bar{a}$ - $l\bar{a}ng$, ten. Thus, $k\bar{a}$ - $s\bar{a}ng$ $h\bar{a}$ - $l\bar{a}ng$, three tens, thirty; $k\bar{a}$ -prei $h\bar{a}l\bar{a}ng$, forty, etc.

Pronouns.—The following are the personal pronouns,— $\hbar \tilde{a}$ or $\hbar \tilde{a}$, I; $ny\tilde{a}$, thou; $\hbar \tilde{c}$, \tilde{e} , or $m't\tilde{a}$, he. The plural is, according to Mr. Robinson, formed by adding long, before which $\hbar \tilde{a}$ becomes hing. Thus, hing-long, we; $my\tilde{a}$ -long, you; $m't\tilde{a}$ -long, they. Compare the corresponding suffix lu in Miri and Daflā. Mr. Needham gives ing- $m\tilde{e}$, we. The possessive pronouns are the same as the personal ones. Thus, $\hbar \tilde{a}$ m'ting $pr\tilde{a}$, my coat (is) good; $ny\tilde{a}$ ang $t\tilde{a}g\tilde{e}$, your house far? is your house far? Sir George Campbell also gives the form na, thy; thus, na $n\tilde{a}b\tilde{a}$, thy father; na m'pling, behind thee.

The demonstrative pronouns are ē-chā or e-sā this, and wē-chā or hi-sā, that.

The interrogative pronouns are $sh\bar{a}$ (Needham) or $s\bar{a}$ - $h\bar{a}$ (Robinson), who? and $m'j\bar{a}$ (Needham) or $es\bar{a}$ - $h\bar{a}$ (Robinson), what?

There are no relative pronouns. We are not, however, informed how relative clauses are expressed. It seems that they are usually formed after the pattern 'I saw a man, he has come,' instead of 'the man whom I saw has come.'

Verbs.—Verbs do not vary for gender, number, or person.

The **Present tense** is formed without any suffix. Thus, $h\tilde{a}$ $d\bar{i}$, I sit; $ny\tilde{a}$ $h\bar{a}b\bar{a}$, thou strikest; $h\bar{e}$ shom, he runs. The verb $d\bar{i}$, to sit, to be, is sometimes suffixed as a kind of auxiliary verb. Thus, $h\tilde{a}$ $T\bar{a}r\tilde{o}\tilde{a}$ $t\bar{a}k\ddot{u}$ $kas\bar{a}$ - $d\bar{i}$ -mam, I Mishmi language know, I can speak Mishmi. Compare Kachin dai, Miri and Daflā $d\hat{a}$.

The suffixed mam in the last instance is an affirmative particle and no tense suffix.

The suffix of the **Past tense** is $y\bar{a}$ (Needham) or a (Robinson). Thus, $h\bar{a}$ taihing $h\bar{a}n\bar{a}$ - $y\bar{a}$, I to-day came, I came to-day; $h\bar{a}$ $\bar{a}br\bar{a}ng$ $t\bar{u}$ - $y\bar{a}$, I finger cut-have, I have cut my finger. Compare the corresponding use of yau, to finish, in Khāmtī, and of $y\bar{o}$, yai, joi, and jou, to finish, in many Kuki-Chin dialects. A corresponding suffix yuoccurs in Southern Kachin.

The suffix of the **Future** is $n-d\bar{e}$. Thus, $h\tilde{a}$ $R\bar{i}m\bar{a}$ $bo-n-d\bar{e}$, I Rima go will, I am going to Rima; $h\tilde{a}$ $t\bar{a}p\tilde{e}$ $dh\bar{a}-n-d\bar{e}$, I cooked rice eat-will; $ny\hat{a}$ $d\bar{i}$ -an- $d\bar{e}$, thou wilt sit. Compare the suffix na in Southern Kachin.

The suffix of the Imperative is $n\bar{a}$. Thus, $m\bar{a}$ - $s\bar{a}ng$ $ch\bar{i}$ - $n\bar{a}$, wood bring; $h\bar{a}$ n'ting hang- $n\bar{a}$, my coat give, give me my coat.

An imperative of the first person plural is formed by adding $k\dot{e}$ or $g\dot{e}$; thus, $p\ddot{o}-k\ddot{e}$ or $p\ddot{o}-g\ddot{e}$, let us go; $dh\ddot{a}-k\ddot{e}$ or $dh\ddot{a}-g\ddot{e}$, let us eat; $y\ddot{s}-k\ddot{e}$ or $y\ddot{i}-ge$, let us stay. Compare infinitive of purpose, and also the suffix $g\dot{e}$ of the negative future in Miri.

The suffix of the negative imperative is $g\bar{a}$, to which $\bar{\imath}$ is usually prefixed. Thus $mar\bar{a}-\bar{\imath}-g\bar{a}$, don't laugh; $d\bar{\imath}-\bar{\imath}-g\bar{a}$, don't sit; $d\bar{\imath}-\bar{\imath}-g\bar{a}$, don't smoke.

The root alone is used as a verbal noun. Mr. Robinson gives the sentence $m't\bar{a}$ teku bri no, he rice to-buy wishes, he wants to buy rice. Bri-no may as well, in this instance, be considered as a compound verb. In $m't\bar{a}$ ma-chom teo te, he tree to-sell cuts, he cuts down the tree to sell it, the root seems to be used as an infinitive of purpose.

Mr. Robinson mentions a suffix $g\bar{e}$ which is used in order to denote purpose. Thus, mia-a tesa huv-ge tase-ge bonde, girls these to-dance to-sing go-will, these girls will go to sing and to dance. In Mr. Needham's Digāru this sentence would run $m\bar{e}$ - $y\bar{a}$ \bar{a} \bar{e} - $ch\bar{a}$ bui- $g\bar{e}$ ta- $s\bar{e}$ - $g\bar{c}$ bon- $d\bar{e}$, women young these 'let us dance,' 'let us sing' go-will. It will be seen from this instance that the suffix $g\bar{e}$ is a suffix of the future, that tense being used to denote the purpose in Digāru as in other connected languages.

Participles.—No instances are given by Messrs. Robinson and Needham, and I am unable to explain the forms in Sir George Campbell's specimens. $Bh\bar{e}$ in $h\tilde{a}$ $t\bar{a}$ - $p\tilde{e}$ $dh\tilde{a}$ - $d\bar{a}$ - $bh\bar{e}$, I cooked rice eat-if, is perhaps the suffix of an adverbial participle.

Compound verbs seem to be formed by simply putting two verbs together. There are no certain instances of Causatives. They are perhaps formed by suffixing $g\bar{o}$ (Needham) or kwon (Robinson). Thus, $s\bar{s}$, die; $s\bar{e}$ - $g\bar{o}$ or se-kwon, kill. Desideratives seem to be formed by adding no; thus, according to Mr. Robinson, $h\bar{a}$ teku bri-no, I paddy tobuy-wish. Compare Daflā nu. Potentiality is indicated by adding $h\bar{e}n\bar{e}$ (Needham) or hanē (Robinson). Thus, $h\bar{a}$ $j\bar{s}$ - $h\bar{e}$ - $n\bar{e}$ - $d\bar{s}$ -mam, I to-do-able-am-affirmative-particle, I can do it; m- $t\bar{a}$ $b\bar{o}$ -hanē-n- $d\bar{e}$, he to-go-able-be-will, he can go. Note the future in the last instance.

The **Negative particle** is a suffixed im (Needham) or yem, yom (Robinson). Thus, $h\tilde{a}$ $r\bar{e}$ -im, I am not afraid; $d\bar{u}$ ai-im, many are-not, there are not many; $mt'\bar{a}$ $ny\bar{a}$ $h\bar{a}$ - $b\bar{a}$ -no-yem, he thee to-strike-wishes-not, he does not wish to strike you. Mr. Robinson states that lum is added in the negative future and in the potential mood. Thus, $h\bar{a}$ $ch\bar{e}$ -lum, I shall not take it; atya-ha-ne-lum, say-able-not, I cannot speak. Both forms are apparently future tenses, all Mr. Robinson's instances of the potential mood being in the future. There is, therefore, probably a future suffix lu, or lu, which is used before the negative.

The usual tense suffixes are sometimes dropped before the negative. Thus, $h\tilde{a}$ taihing $t\bar{a}m$ - $y\bar{u}m$ $k\bar{a}$ -teng-im, I to-day monkey saw-not, I did not see a monkey to-day.

The Interrogative particle is $g\bar{e}$. Thus, $t\tilde{a}$ \tilde{a} - $g\bar{e}$, fish are? are there any fish? $ny\tilde{a}$ $r\bar{e}$ - $d\bar{i}$ - $g\bar{e}$, thou afraid-art? art thou afraid? $ny\tilde{a}$ $p\bar{a}mr\bar{o}$ \bar{i} - $d\bar{i}$ - $g\bar{e}$, thy brother is? hast thou a brother? $ny\bar{a}$ ka- $s\bar{a}$ - $d\bar{i}$ - $g\bar{e}$, do you understand? The particle of disjunctive questions seems to be $ky\bar{a}$; thus, \tilde{a} $ky\bar{a}$ ai-im $ky\bar{a}$, are there (any) or are there not? The interrogative particle seems to be dropped when the sentence contains an interrogative pronoun. Thus, $h\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{o}$ \tilde{a} , where is (it)?

Order of words.—The usual order of words is subject, object, verb.

MIJU.

The remarks on Mijū grammar which follow are based on the grammatical sketch given by Mr. Robinson and on Mr. Needham's vocabulary. The spelling of the latter has been followed so far as possible.

Prefixes.—The most common otiose prefixes are ka, m, and ra.

Ka or $k\bar{a}$ occurs in nouns such as ka-mai, woman; $k\bar{a}$ - $ph\bar{a}n$, flower, etc. It is often dropped in compounds. Thus, sa-mai, sister; mai- $s\bar{a}$, young woman. Another prefix, $k\bar{\imath}$, occurs before nouns of relationship; thus, $k\bar{\imath}$ -pai, father; $k\bar{\imath}$ - $na\tilde{\imath}$, mother; $k\bar{\imath}$ - $k\bar{\imath}$ - $na\tilde{\imath}$, mother; $k\bar{\imath}$ - $k\bar{\imath}$ - $na\tilde{\imath}$, mother; $k\bar{\imath}$ - $k\bar{\imath}$ - $na\bar{\imath}$, grandfather, etc. This $k\bar{\imath}$ is perhaps originally the possessive pronoun of the first person. The prefix ka is commonly used in the formation of adjectives. Thus, ka-nai, near; ka-tai, large; ka-tai, new; ka-tang, deep; ka-sit, good, etc. Compare the corresponding prefix ka or ga in Kachin, Bodo, and Nāgā languages.

M is used before nouns. Thus, $m'ch\bar{u}$, mouth; m'blai, tongue; m'san, claw; $m'g\bar{u}$, coat; $m'bl\bar{\imath}$, house; $m-ph\bar{a}$, lightning. Compare Kachin ma.

Ra is prefixed to nouns such as ra-nga, fish; ra-mai, tail; ra-ming, sun; ra-mang, name. Compare the r-suffix in forms such as Rāngkhōl ir-ming, Hallām rā-ming, name. Mr. Robinson gives nga, fish; le-mik, sun; and lā-mong, name. It is possible that different prefixes are represented in the words quoted.

A prefix ta seems to occur in words such as $ta-l\bar{\imath}$, bow; $ta-l\hat{\imath}-\bar{\imath}$, buffalo; ta-mang, fire-place; ta-ming, salt, etc.

In n'da'r, petticoat; $n\bar{a}$ - $ch\bar{c}$, star; n'dak, belly; n'kha-yeng, village, etc., we have a prefix na corresponding to Digāru and Kachin n'.

Nouns.—The **Gender** of human beings is distinguished by using different words, or by adding $r\bar{o}wai$, male, and ka-mai, or mai, female. Thus, $k\bar{\imath}$ -pai, father; $k\bar{\imath}$ - $na\tilde{\imath}$ (Needham) or mum (Robinson), mother: $k\bar{\imath}$ - $k\bar{\imath}ug$, grandfather; $k\bar{\imath}$ - $ng\tilde{o}$, grandmother: $sh\bar{a}my\bar{e}$, brother; $s\bar{a}$ -mai, sister: $mangr\bar{a}$ $r\bar{o}wai$, a male slave; $mangr\bar{a}$ ka-mai, a female slave.

The usual suffixes in the case of animals are $n'd\bar{u}$, $rang\bar{a}$, $rah\bar{a}r$, rapai, and $ng\bar{a}l\tilde{o}$, male, and $na\tilde{u}$, female. Thus, $l\bar{\imath}$ $n'd\bar{u}$, pig male; $l\bar{\imath}$ $na\hat{u}$, pig female: $m\bar{o}$ $rang\bar{a}$, a male monkey; $m\bar{o}$ $na\tilde{u}$, a female monkey: $kw\bar{\imath}$ $rah\bar{a}r$, a dog; $kw\bar{\imath}$ $na\tilde{u}$, a bitch: krai rapai, a cock; krai $na\tilde{u}$, a hen: $sh\bar{a}$ $ng\bar{a}l\tilde{o}$, a he-mithon; $sh\bar{a}$ $na\tilde{u}$, a she-mithon. Mr. Robinson gives $l\bar{\imath}$ $r_{\bar{\nu}}\bar{z}\bar{z}\bar{z}$, a hog; $l\bar{z}$ ka-mai, a sow.

Number.—Number is, when necessary, indicated by adding a numeral or else some word meaning 'many,' 'all,' etc. Thus, kioī grün, dog eight, eight dogs; klan ka-plak, flower all, all the flowers.

Case.—The nominative and the accusative do not take any suffix. The genitive is expressed by simply putting the governed before the governing noun. Thus, $vc\bar{a}$ $l\bar{a}p$, bamboo leaf, the leaf of the bamboo; $s\bar{a}$ - $b\bar{u}$ $r\bar{o}$, child hand, the child's hand. Other relations are indicated by means of postpositions. I have not been able to trace other postpositions than $l\bar{a}$, in, into.

Adjectives.—Adjectives usually follow the noun they qualify. Thus, $man-ch\bar{u}$ keiyem, cow black, a black cow; $kang\ ga-khrang$, a long horn.

The comparative degree is expressed by simply putting the compared noun before the adjective. Thus, $k\bar{\imath}$ an ka-chong ka-shyung, I this man lean, I am leaner than this man; $w\bar{e}$ nya umong kam, he thee more has, he has more than thou.

Numerals.—The numerals are given in the list of words. They follow the noun hey qualify. The numerals 11-19 are formed by inserting $m\tilde{a}$, and, between kap, ten, and the numerals 'one,' 'two,' etc. A suffix $k\tilde{a}$, corresponding to $k\tilde{a}$, in Miri and $g\tilde{a}$ in Daflā is added in Mr. Needham's list. Thus, $kap \ m\tilde{a} \ ko-m\tilde{o}-k\tilde{a}$, eleven; $kap \ m\tilde{a} \ n\tilde{a}t-k\tilde{a}$,

nineteen. 'Twenty' is ka-tal-må (Needham), or ke-tag (Robinson). Sung-gyep, thirty (Robinson), is formed by prefixing sung, i.e., the numeral $k\bar{a}$ -sām, three, without the prefix $k\bar{a}$, to gyep, another word for 'ten.' Bri-si, forty, in the same way contains bri, the base of kam-brin, four, prefixed to si, ten. $Ngr\bar{u}n$ -si, fifty, seems to contain another word for 'five,' $ngr\bar{u}n$.

Pronouns.—The personal pronouns are $k\bar{\imath}$, I; $k\bar{\imath}$ -thal, we; $ny\hat{a}$ or $\hat{n}\hat{a}$, thou; $n\hat{a}$ -thal or $n\hat{a}$ -ne-thal, you; $w\bar{e}$, he, she; $w\bar{e}$ -thal or $v\bar{e}$ -thal, they. Mr. Needham, who does not mention any plural forms, gives $\bar{a}ngka\hat{\imath}$, he.

Demonstrative pronouns are $\bar{a}n$, this; $w\tilde{a}$ (Needham), $ph\tilde{e}$ -hai (Robinson), that.

The interrogative pronouns are $ny\bar{a}$ (Needham) or $(hoi\text{-})n\bar{a}$ (Robinson), who? shin (Needham) or sin-doi (Robinson), what? Thus, $\bar{a}n \ tang\text{-}klau \ n\bar{a} \ p\bar{\imath}\text{-}kong$, this spear who given-has? who has given you this spear?

Relative clauses are formed in the same way as in Digāru. We have no information as to how relative participles are formed.

Verbs.—Verbs do not differ for gender, number and person.

The root alone is used in order to denote the **Present time**; thus $k\bar{\imath}$ ndat, I call; $ny\bar{a}$ $k\bar{a}p$, thou shootest; $w\bar{e}$ $g\bar{\imath}$ - $\bar{a}r$, he runs. The suffix meng, probably a verb substantive, is sometimes added. Thus, $w\bar{e}$ $k\bar{a}p$ -meng, he shoots, or, is shooting.

The usual suffixes of **Past time** are $g\bar{a}$ and kong; compare Miri $k\bar{a}$ and $k\bar{a}ng$. Kong is often used to denote a remote past, and may be translated as a perfect. Thus, mang- \bar{a} - $n\bar{i}$ $t\bar{e}$ -chim ko- $m\bar{o}$ $s\bar{a}t$ - $g\bar{a}$, yesterday wild-hog one killed, yesterday I killed a wild hog; $H\bar{e}ram$ $v\bar{o}it$ -kong, Heram sold (it); $y\bar{a}h\bar{a}$ thai-kong, where have-(they-) gone?

The suffix of the **Future** is $y\bar{u}$ or yung; thus, $k\bar{\imath}sh\bar{a}\cdot y\bar{u}$, I will eat; $w\bar{e}$ $k\bar{a}p\text{-}yung$, he will shoot.

The suffix of the Imperative is $sh\bar{u}$. Thus, $ton-zai-sh\bar{u}$, sing; Chohun miro sal- $sh\bar{u}$, Chohun with (-you) bring; $t\bar{\imath}-kong$ $t\bar{\imath}$ thong- $sh\bar{u}$, water-ghaut water fetch, fetch some water from the water ghaut. The root alone is often used; thus, $h\bar{u}$, come.

The negative imperative is expressed by prefixing ai to the verb. Thus, ai- $sh\bar{a}$, don't eat; ai- $nu\bar{\imath}$, don't sleep; ai- $tha\bar{\imath}$, don't go.

The root alone is used as a verbal noun. Thus, $k\bar{\imath}$ mai mā non-niu, I dance not can. The same form is apparently also used as an infinitive of purpose. Thus, $v\bar{e}$ -thal ta-ming wit shūp-kong, they salt sell bought, they have bought the salt in order to sell it; an thong hū, this see come, come and see this; $k\bar{o}m$ sāt thai-kong, bear kill went, they have gone in order to kill a bear.

There are no materials available for showing the formation of participles.

Compound verbs.—We are only informed about the formation of the compounds denoting potentiality, in which non-niu, able, is added to the root of the principal verb. Thus, nyá zai-non-niu, thou sing-canst.

The Negative particle is a prefixed $m\bar{a}$. Thus, $kw\bar{i}$ $m\bar{a}$ -chak-yung, the-dog not-bite-will; n'khar li ka-chong $m\bar{a}$ -chak, village in men not-are, there are no men in the village. The vowel of the negative is sometimes shortened or changed in other ways. Thus, Needham mo-phān, Robinson m'-phan, bad.

The Interrogative particle is $\bar{\imath}$; compare Kachin $\bar{\imath}$. Thus, $w\bar{\imath}$ zai-meng, tyat-ma- $\bar{\imath}$, the-birds are-singing, hear-not? the birds are singing, do you not hear? m'bl $\bar{\imath}$ lā

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hā-ī, house into come? will you come into the house? The interrogative particle is dropped after an interrogative pronoun. Thus, ān nyā bāng, this whose cloth? whose cloth is this? kī gangnyā lā-kong, my bow who taken-has? who has taken my bow?

Order of words.—The usual order of words is subject, object, verb.

LIST OF STANDARD WORDS AND PHRASES

	Eng	lish.			Aks (Darr	ang).		Eastern Dafi	ã (На	milton).		Dafiā (Robins	on).	Miri.	•,	
1.	One .	•		٠.	A	•		Akkin .	•		•	Ā-kin		Ā-kā, ā-tēr-kā .		
2.	Two	•	•	•	Kshi	•	•	Anyi .	•	•		Ā-ni	٦	Ānyī-kâ .	•	
3.	Three	•	•	•	Zu	•		A-om .		•		Ā-ām		Ā d m-kâ		
4.	Four	•	•	•	Fi-ri	•	:	A-pl .	•		•	Ā-pli		Āpī-kâ	•	
5.	Five	•	•	•	Phum	•	•	Å-ng .	•	•		Ā-ngō		Āngâ-kâ		
6.	Six	•	•	•	Rich	•		Ā-kr .	•		-	Ak-ple		Ākeng-kâ		
7.	Seven	•	•	•	Mulh	•	•	Kanni .	•		٠	Kānag		Kinit-kâ.	•	
8.	Eight	•	•	•	Sikzi	•	•,	Plin .		,		Plag-nag .		Pinyī-kâ	•	
9.	Nine	•	•	•	Stheu, sthö .	•	•	Kyā .		•		Kāyō		Kânāng-kâ	•	
10.	Ten .	•	•	•	Rhi .	•		Illyi .		•		Rang		Ē-ing-kâ		
11.	Twenty	•	•	•	Bisha	•	•	Nyi-krii .				Rāng-chāng .		E-ing-ānyī-kā	•	
12.	Fifty	•	•	•	Phumu-ru .	•	•	Chamung	•		\cdot	*** ***		E-ing-āngā-kā		
l3.	Hundred	•	•	•	Phogwa, purrua			Lüg .	•			*** ***		Ling-kâ	•	
14.	1.	•	•	•	Ngua, nyâ, nâ .		•	Ngå .	•	•		Ngo		Ngâ		
l5.	Of me	•	•	•	Nga geh .	•	•	Ngå-ka, ngå		•		Ngō-g		Ngå-ka	•	
16.	Mine	•	•		Nga-chhi .	•	-	Nga-ka .	•			*** ***		Ngâ-ka		
7.	We.	•	•	•	Ni			Ngå-lu .		•		Ngō-lu		Ngå-lū		
18.	Of us	•	•	•	Inchhi gao .			Ngå-lu-ga			\cdot	Ngō-lu-g		Ngâ-lũ-ka .	•	
9.	Our	•	•	•	Inchhi			Ngâ-lu-ga	•			***		Ngâ-l ū -ka	•	
	Thou	•	•	٠	Ва	•		Nå .	•	•		No		Nâ		
21.	Of thee	•	•	٠	Do-goio	•	•	Nâ-ka, nâ	•			Nō-g		Nâ-ka	•	
	Thine	•	•	•	Ba-chhi	•		Nâ-ka .	•		\cdot	*****		Wâ-ka	•	•
	You.	•	•	•	Jah, jö, jöe .			Nâ-lu .	•	•		Nō-lu		Nû-l ā	•	•
	Ož you	•	•	•	Jah-goio .			Nâ-lu-ga.	•			Nō-lu-g		Nâ-lū-ka		•
25.	Your		•		Jaichhi	•		Nâ-lu-ga.				*****		Nâ-lū-ka	•	٠

IN THE DIALECTS OF THE NORTH ASSAM GROUP.

Abor (when different from Mir	Chulikātā or Taying Mishmi (Campbell).	Digåru Mishmi (Robinson and Needham). Mijū Mishmi (Robinson at Needham).	English.
******	Ēkhē	. É-khing Kmō, kŏmō	. I. One.
841 240	Kāni	Kā-ying Kā-ning, kinnin	. 2. Two.
*** ***	Kāsh	Kā-sāng	3. Three.
*** ***	Kāppi	Kā-prei	. 4. Four.
ilngå	. Māngā	Mā-ngā	. 5. Five.
******	Ahe	Tārā Kā-tām	. 6. Six.
******	Joh	Õwē Nün	. 7. Seven.
*** ***	Na	Illam Grün	. 8. Eight.
****	Khili	Kenyong Nat	. 9. Nine.
*** ***	Hush	Hālāng Kap	. 10. Ten.
· ••• •••	Ani hush	Kāying-hālāng or hālāng- Ketag	. II. Twenty.
*** ***	Māngā lon	Māngā hālāng . Ngrünsi	12. Fifty.
*** ***	Malū	Mālam Wāyā	13. Hundred.
*** ***	Ngialumbro E	Hā, hã	14. I.
*** ***	Nge-ehunde E	Hā, hã	15. Of me.
*** ***	Nge-ehunde		16. Mine.
	Ehundna	ling-lâng, ing-mē Kī-thal	17. We.
	Ngaji-appo H	ling-lâng, ing-mē	18. Of us.
•••••	Ngialadu (?)	*****	19. Our.
	Ngio N	yâ	20. Thou.
	Newji	yå	21. Of thee.
	Newji		22. Thine.
·····	Ehund Ny	râ-lâng No-thal or wons-thal .	23. You.
N	Tewji Ny	ì	24. Of you.
N	Tewji	,	25. Your.

Engli	ish.			Aka (Da	rrang).		Easter	n Daflā	(Нап	ülton).	Daf	lā (Bobi	nson).			. Мыл			
26. He .	•	•		ı			Ма		•	,	Mā)	•	•	Bui .	•	•	1
27. Of him		•		Ictchhi-goio			Mui-ga	•			Mā-g		•		-	Bui-ka .	•		$\left\{ \right.$
28. His .	•	•	-	Ietchhi, ö-th i	•		Mui-ga	•	•		Mā-g	•	•		\cdot	Bui-ka .	•	•	\cdot
29. They	•			Nga, na .	•		Būllu	•			Mā-lu		•	•	\cdot	Bū-lū .	•	·,	
30. Of them				Nga-goio .	•	•	Būli-ga,	bāllū	•		Mā-lug		•	•		Bū-lū-ka	•		$\cdot \cdot$
31. Their		•		Rasa .		•	Büll-ga,	, bāllā			Mā-lug		•		-	Bū-lū-ka	•	•	
32. Hand				Pho, gsi .		• ,	Ā-lā		•		Lāk	•	•	•		Ā-lāk .	•	•	\cdot
33. Foot		•		Shi .		•	Āl.		•		Lāgā	•	•	•	\cdot	Ā-lē .	•	•	
34. Nose	•			Nishi, nüs ü		•	. Nyepun	ı .	•		Nyopom	•	•		\cdot	Yē-būng	•	•	\cdot
35. Eye	•			Ni	•	•	A-nyi	•	•		Nyāk					Ā-mik .	•	•	\cdot
36. Mouth				Nza, nsu .		•	A-gam	•			Gām	•		•		Nāp-pāng	•		-
37. Tooth	•	•	-	Thu .	•		E-hi	•	•		Fig	•	•	•		Ī-pāng .	•	7"	\cdot
38. Esr	•	•	•	Phu .		•	. Mom	•	•		Niorong	•	•	•		Yē-rūng	•	•	\cdot
39. Hair		.•	•	Ke-ti, ke-chŭ	•	•	. Düm	•	•		Dümük	•	•			Dum-wit	•	•	\cdot
40. Head	•	٠.	•	Khe .	•	•	. Eppin		•		Потро	•	•	•		Mit-tük	•	•	
41. Tongue	•	•	•	Jebla .	•	•	. Ailyi	•			Rō	•	•	•	\cdot	Ai-yō .	•	•	
42. Belly	•	-	•	Lakhudi .	•		. Ai-yē				Коро	•	•	•		Å-ki .	•	•	,
43. Back	•	ŗ.	·•	Sbo .	•	•	. Länk	•			Gārpō	•	•	•		Lām-kū	•	•	•
44. Iron	•	! *	•	Sza .	•	•	. Yodar	٠			Rokdor	•	•	•		Yōk-din .	•	•	•
45. Gold	•	F •	٠,	Kshi, shū			. Êin°	•	•	•	Āen		•	•		(No word)	•	•	
46. Silver	•	r,	ř	Lummu, lüm	ms		Rūp	•		•	Tängkü	•	•	•	•	Ditto .	•	•	•
47. Father	:•	·	•	Āu .	•		. Āp	•	•	•	Ã-bō	•	•	•	•	Ābū. bā-bū	•	•	•
48. Mother	[•	•	•	Ain, a-ni.	•		Āmmā	, o r ā- ī	na.	•	Ā-ne	•	•	•	٠	Ānü, nā -nü	•	•	
49. Brother	•	•	•	Å-lu (elder)	; nue 1	(young	r) A-bū (elder)	bor	(younger)	Tette (el	der) ; l	oro (you ng	er)	Buirâ .	•	•	•
50. Sister	•	•	•	Ā-ma (elder (younger).	r) ; nü :	0, nü-1	ni Ammi (you	(eld nge r).	ler);	buir-m	Ā-mā (youn	(elder g er) .);	biir-r	nā	Buirma	•	•	•
51. Man	•	•	•	Nu-nā, nū-n	i.	•	Nyī	•	•	•	Bāngni	•	•	•	•	Ā-mī, mī-lyong	5	•	-
52. Woman		•		E-phun, pfü	-mi	,	. Nyem:	m .	•	•	Nyemä.	•	•	•	•	Nerug, mi-ma	•	•	·

	different from Miri		likātā o	mpbell).		Digāru Mishmi (Robinson a Needham).	nd Mijū Mishmi (Robinson an Needham).	d English
	*** ***	Ngio-i	ipu -	•	•		Mtā, hē, ē	. We, angkai	. 26. He.
	*** ***	Mimu	t or m	it .	•				27. Of him.
	*** ***	Mimu	or mi	t .·	•				28. His.
•	•••	He-ail	a.	•	•		. Mtā-lâng, wē-lâng .	. Wē-thal or vē-thal .	. 29. They.
	••••	New-ip	o-māy	a.	•		****	•••••	30. Of them.
•	*** ***	New-ip	o-māy	a ,			•••		31. Their.
	*** ***	Akhmo		•			Htyos, hāthō	Yop, 15	. 32. Hand.
	*** ***	Byāpā	•	•		•	Mgrung, ngrõ pais	Mplā, plā-topā .	. 33. Foot.
	•••	Enabo	•	•	•	•	Hnyā-gom, hā-nāgam	. Min-yong, minő	. 34. Nose.
	••••••	-Elāb y ā	• •	•	٠		Ma-lom	. Mĩ	. 35. Eye.
,	•••••	Ekabe	•	•	•	•	Ku-kwen, ta-rambom	. Njyut, mchū	. 36. Mouth.
	•••••	Tāmbyā	i .	•	•	•	Lā	Tsī, sīpā	. 37. Tooth.
•	•••••	Akunā	•	•	•	•	Nkrā-nā, krā-nā	. Ing	. 38. Ear.
	••••	Thamby	ā.	•	•		Thang	. Sham	. 39. Hair.
Å-täk	• • .	Eku, ek	ura	•		٠	Mkau, kūrū	. Ků	. 40. Head.
•	••••	Lina	•	• •	•		Ta-langnā	Mblai .	. 41. Tongue.
**	• • • •	Khiapu	• •	•	•	•	Klītā-pom	Ndak	. 42. Belly.
••	••••	Erambo	•	•	•	\cdot	Mpling	Glok	43. Back,
••	·····	Si .	• •	•	•		Tsi, sai	Teng-gri, lungli	. 44. Iron.
•••		Pidi	•		•	\cdot	Paddei .	Som	45. Gold.
***	····	Pau	•	•			Pan-eng	Rupāi	46. Silver.
aii .	• • •	Nābā	•	•	•		Nā-bā	Ki-pai	47. Father:
lānī .	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	Nāni	•	•	•		Nā-mā	Nu-nu, kinaŭ	48. Mother.
ābuing .	• • •	Āliā	•	•	•		Nā-fo, nā-pū (elder) ; pāmyō, pāmrō (younger).	Tchepmai (elder); gotwoi	
imi .	• • • • • • •	Athepoä	•	¢		•	Nā-bī (elder); mā-thī (younger).	shāmyē (younger).	50. Sister.
	-1	leya-	•					Kichong, chong; male, rowa	1
. ***	4	ya		• ,	•		līyā	Kmai, kamai	52. Woman,

Engli	ıh.			Aka (Darra	ng).			Eastern	Dafil	(Hem	ilton).	_	Dan	ā (Robinso	on). 			Miri.	
53. Wife	•	•		Nā-phun, gsi	,	•		Nyīhyā	Þ	•	•		Mige, ziof	āņg .	•	•	Miyeng .	•	
54. Child	•	•	\cdot	Ângā-sā				Kå .			•		Āngā			•	Kō.		
55. Son .	•		-	Sau		•		Kå nyegā	ı		•		Kāo		•		Kō mi-lyo au mi-ly	ng (chil	d . 21
56. Daughter				Sām				Kå nyemi	m.				Niome-kā	•	•		Kō nerng ō-ma.	_	fen
57. Slave		•		Shapse-keri .				Nyerrä		•	•			*** ***			Pāk-bō=n female.	nale, Pi	àng
58. Cultivator	,	•		Viddeu			•	Pa-binna	•	•	•			ħ			Ārēg-ī-na:	=field-do)er
59. Shepherd		•		Kishi-rakkhru					,••••	•••				******				*****	
60. God		•	•	Gaisa guru .		•	•	Űτ	•	•	•		Öyük		•	,		******	
61. Devil		•	:	Nsa			٠.		***					*** ***,				*****	
62. Sun	•	•		Ja			•	Då-nyi	•	•	•	•	Dani		•	٠	Då-nyi .	•	
63. Moon		•		Khabbi				Pol	•	•			Pölö		•		Polo .	• ,	•
64. Star		•	•	Litse		•	•	Tākkār	•	•	•		Tākar		•	•	Tākār .	•	
65. Fire	•.	•	•	Me, mi		•	•	Üm .	•		•	•	Ame		•	•	Umü .	•	,
66. Water	•	•	•	Khu				Isshi	•		•	•	Esi		•	•	Āsi .		•
67. House	•	•	•	Ngya, nie .				Năm	•	٠	•	•		*** ***			Eküm .		•
68. Horse	•	•	٠	Phu-gra		•		Ghura	•	•	•	•	Görā		•	•		*** ***	
69. Cow	•	•	•	Phu-lukhu	,	•		Sa.	•	•	•	•	St	• •.	•	•		P44 P44	
70. Dog	•	•	٠	Sleh, sülö .				Î-ki	•	•		•	Ekki		•		Bu .	. •	:
71. Cat	•	•	•	Āsāh, āshā		•	•	Ā-sī	•	•			A-ohe	. ,	٠	•		******	
72. Cock	•	•	•	Demrau .	,	•		Porå råp		•	•			*****			Rokpō .		,
73. Duck	•	•	•	Ова, , ,		•		Pajāb	•	•				*** ***			Pējāp .	•	•
74. Ass	•	•	•	Phu-babu	•	•	•		, ••	• • • •				*** *** ,			Ī.	w#* s.c.f	
75. Camel	•	•	•	ab 4, 61	••				**	* ***				*** 784				101 089	
76. Bird	•	•	•	Musu .	•	•		Patta	•	•	•	•	Patta,		•	•	Prettang	•	•
77. Go	•	ü	•	Ji-bueh, kha-br	LO	•	•	Ūnni	•	•	•	٠	Angno	• •	•	•	Gi-toka	•. •	
78; Eat	•	•	•	Cha-buch	•	•	•	Da-tå	•	. •	•	•	Do-to		•	•	Då-tokā	, •	•
79. Bit	•	•		Rieh, röne				Dā-tā,					Dong-to				Dű-tokā .		

	when different from Mi	In).		å or Ta (Campl	oell).	OL HID	m1	Digāru Mishmi (I Needha	Robinson s m).	bra	Mijû Mishmi (Robins Needham).	on and	English.
	*** ***	Āķu		•	•		٠	Hamya, mīyā .	•		Ke-kmai	•	. 53. Wife.
	300 300	Āwu	,	, ,	,			Āgemung, ā .	•	•	Sā-bū	•	. 54. Child.
	••••••	Åbro		•		,		Aiwā, mōwā ā	•		Sā.		55. Son.
	*** ***	Āmya	ı.	•	,)		Aiā, mīyā ā		-	Kmai-sā, sā-mai		56. Daughter.
	*** ***	Eppo	•	•				Mpo			Manggrā .		57. Slave.
	504 200	Āri					\cdot	*** ***			*** ***		58. Cultivator.
		Maji-h	alu	•			\cdot	2			•••••		59. Shepherd.
	***	Ini-hur	ā	•			. 1	Iging-ya (P)			Se-lap		60. God.
	400 000	Daen	•	•	•		$\cdot $	ies .e.,					61. Devil.
	******	Ini	•	•	•		. E	ling-nging, ring	•	. 1	Lemik, raming	•	62. Sun.
	*** ***	Ela	•	•	•		. [ho, hala	•	. 3	Lai		63. Moon.
	000 700	Ådikro	•	•.	•		. K	ā-ding			Maji, nāchī		64. Star.
	*** ***	Āmihā	•	•	•	•	. N	ā-ming.	•	. 1	dai		65. Fire.
	*******	Māji	•	•	•		М	ā-chī . ,	• .	. T	ī		66. Water.
	402 940	Uks.	•	•	•		. A:	ng		. В	Blī, mblī		67. House.
	*** ***	Geera (s	ic)	•	•	•	G	rue .		K	om-beng		68. Horse.
	*****	Mājūkro	•	•	••		M	ē-chu, mā tra u		. М	lan-chu		69. Cow.
	•••	Ikū	•	•	•	•	N	wi, nokwi, ngui	· .	K	wi		70. Dog.
	F11 40)	Májāri	•	•	•	•	Mi	ijāri . ,	• •	Jā	imi	•.	71. Cat.
	*** ***	Eto	•	•	•	•	In	ieo karii, tālā ; <i>he</i> assi, mchē.	n, intec	K:	rai rāpai; <i>hen</i> , krai 1 krai kmai.	naã,	72. Cock.
	800 ***	Dekibu	•	•	•	•	Ťk	hrëng-bu, klenbö		K	ai-pet; tāhā		73. Duck.
	*** ***		•					201 200			* ,	7	74. Ass.
	•••••		**	b ton				*** ***			******	7	75. Camel.
		P y ā.	!		•	•	M	iā .	•. •	W	ā	. 7	76. Bird.
to-kā	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	Bānā .	,	•	•	•	Bō∙	nā		Ph	ai-shū, thai-shū .	. 7	77. Go.
		Ξā.	,.	•	•	•	Thi	i-nā		Sh	ā-shū	. 7	78. Est.
	J	ibā .	,				Dī-	nā, "			p-shū		9. Sit.

English.		Aka (Darrang).	Eastern Daflā (Hamilton).	Dafiā (Robinson).	Miri.
80. Come		Age dueh	Ū-tâ	Ang-ku-bō	Gî-â-tokā
81. Beat .		Gigueh, güga	Ma-tâ,	Mo-to	Pā-tokā
82. Stand		Gujueh, gü-dzü-lue	Dā-tâ	Pok-to	Dāk-tokā
83. Die .		Se-weh, bü-dzi-bi	Sī-tâ	Sig-to	Sī-tokā
84. Give .		Ve-tchu, dzi-ba	Ji-tâ, kē	Bik-tō, ke	Bî-tokā .
85. Run .	• •	Je-bueh, godzoe	Yâ-tâ	Far-to	Dūk-toka
86. Up		Edju-ge	Tā-lâ	314.044	Tai-5
87. Near .		E-ni-cha	Ā-gūm-hâ	Berā	Ānin
88. Down .		Ullur-ge	Bā-lâ	*****	Kieg
89. Far .		Ërra-ge	Ādā	Ādōpā	Motē
90. Before		E-bra-ge, e-vra	Kolga	,	Kērāpū
91. Behind .		E-phun-ge	Ķā-kuā	,	Mēlāmpū
92. Who .	•	Juah	Ħ	He	Sēkō
93. What .	•	Ḥan, hania	Hog	Hogo	Īnkwö
94. Why .	•	Han-to, han-do	Hog-ba		Kāpīlā
95. And .	•	Āiya	La		Läng
96. But .	•	Khenadane	Okka	5	No word, participles used .
97. If	•	. Şenamerede, soio .	Nyilå (a verbal suffix)		Muilo
98. Yes .	•	Engah, ö	A		A (pronounced like 'er')
99. No	•	. Ма	. Ма	411 11 11	Mā
100. Alas .	•	Ngah ngah	. Aa	,	••
101. A father .	•	Āu	Āb-gâ . , .	·	Ābē
102. Of a father	•	. Āu-ti	Åb-ga		Åbū-ka
103. To a father	•	. Âu-e	Åb-am		Ābū-em
104. From a father	•	Āu-goio	Abga hok		Ābū-lok-ke or lok-ka
105. Two fathers	•	Āu kshi	Āb anyi-gā		Ābū ānyī-kā
106. Fathers . N. A. G.—628	•	Ja āu, žu anye	. Ab talling	. Å-bö pång, å-bö å-rok	Ābū kiding

Abor (when different from M	iri). Chulikātā or Taying Mishmi (Campbell).	Digāru Mishmi (Robinson and Needham).	Miju Mishmi (Robinson and Needlam).	English.
	Ebalibi	Hānnā-nā	Hű-shū	So. Come.
	Нйр	Hābā-nā	Pong-shu	81. Beat.
•	Devā	Dwe-nā	Long-shū	82. Stand.
*** ***	Hibā	Sī-nā	Sī-shū	83. Die.
*** ***	Hābā .	Hang-nā	Pī-shū	S4. Give.
*** ***	Dobo	Chu-nā, shom-nā	Gīār-shū	85. Run.
101 010	Etūdā	***	Āliroh, kanai	86. Up.
A88 480	Ānomā, 1	Ngā	·····	87. Near.
Rümkin	Ripomā	····	8	88. Down.
*** 1**		Dyāu, dā	Klām	39. Far.
*** ***	Âhyā			0. Before.
*** ***	Epindolu	•••••	g	1. Behind.
*** ***		hā	Nyā	2. Who.
*** 110		hāgehā, mjā	Sindoi, shin	3. What.
000 021		jā kanong, kadī (Chendo, siga 9.	4. Why.
*** ***	Āmā-mā	••••••		. And.
** ***	Āmā-mā	******	96	3. But.
•••••	Ejamigo	*****	97	'. If.
	Aya		ayim, am 98	. Үез.
	P	ām, shāmbū; negative article, im; prohibitive article, i-gā, both suffixed.	kā; <i>prohibitive particle</i> , 99. 21 prefixed.	No.
		•••••	100.	Alas,
	Ekhë naba		1	A father.
	Albha naha a	postposition for genitive No	postposition for genitive 102.	Of a father.
-	20.2		103.	To a father.
	čkhě nábá kepanji Tapi Káni nábá	pe and ko=from.	104.	From a father.
	ābā ejā		105. 1	I'wo fathers.

·	English.	Aka (Darrang).	Eastern Dafiä (Hamilton).	Dafiā (Robinson).	Miri.
107.	Of fathers .	Ja āu-ti	Åb bull-ga		Ābu kiding-ka
108.	To fathers .	Jašuni	Āb būll-ba		Ābū kiding-em
109.	From fathers .	Āu na-goio	Âb băll-ga hok	44.144	Ābū kiding-lok-ke
1 10.	A daughter .	E-sām	Nyemm kå	******	Kō nerug
111.	Of a daughter .	Sām-ti	Nyemm kâ-ga		Kō nerug-ka
112.	To a daughter .	Sām-e	Kâ nyemm-am		Kō nerug-em
113.	From a daughter	· Sām goio	Kâ nyemm-ga hok		Kō nerug-lok-ke
114	Two daughters .	- Sām kshi	Kâ nyemm a-nyi-gâ	14	Kō nerug ānyī-kā
115	Daughters .	Sām aniya	Kâ nyemm müllüng.		Kō nerug kiding
116	. Of daughters .	· Sām-ti	Kå nyemm mällu-ga .		Kō nerug kiding-ka
117	. To daughters .	Sām ni	Kâ nyemm müllu-ba .		Kō nerug kiding-em .
118	. From daughters	· Sām na-goio	Kå nyemm mällu-ga hok .		Kō nerug kiding-lok-ke .
119	. A good man .	Nü-nā u.	Nyī āl-na		Milvong aina-kå
120	. Of a good man .	Nü-nă u-ti	Nyī āl-na-ga		Milvong aina-kā-k; more correct to say aina milvong-
121	. To a good man .	Nü-nā u-se	. Nyi āl-na-ba	*****	ka. Milvong aina-kâ-em; more correct to say aina mil-
122	. From a good man	Nü-nā u-goio	. Ny: āl-na-ga hok	`**· · · ·	vong-em. Milvong aina-kå-lok-ke; more correct to say aina
123	. Two good men .	. Nü-nā u kshi	Nyî âl-na a-nyi-gâ .	*** ***	milvong-lok-ke. Aina milvong änyi-ka
124	. Good men .	Unü-nā	. Nyi äl-na müllü-he	·······	Aina milvong kiding .
125	o, Of good men .	. Nü-nā u na-chi	Nyī āl-na mūllū-he-ga .		Aina milvong kiding-ka
126	. To good men .	. Ná-re u nü-nā .	. Nyi āl-na mūllū-ham .	100 12	Aina milvong kiding-em .
127	7. From good men	. Nü-nā u na-goio .	. Nyî âl-na mûllû-he-ga hok .	4	Aina mīlvong kiding-lok-ke
128	. A good woman .	. E-mi-miu	. Nyemm äl-na	•••••	Aina nerug
129	. A bad boy :	. Ere āngāsā mikzū .	. Kā āl-mā-na	144 104 ₀ ·	Ai-mā-na kō
130	. Good woman .	. Mimi jija u	Nyemm āl-na müllü-he	****	Aina nerug kiding
131	. A bad girl	. Ere mimi mikzū .	. Nyemm kå äl-mä-na	*** **	Ai-mā-na kō nerug • •
132	. Good	σ		Ā-le-pā	Ai dà (lit. good is)
138	. Better	· Ere e-u-phau ·	. Ál-yā-dâ	Ā-le-vā·	Ai-v-ādā (lit. good more is)

bor (when different from Miri).	Chulikātā or Taying Mishmi (Campbell).	Digaru Mishmi (Robinson and Needham).	Mijū Mishmi (Robinson and Needham).	English.
	Nābā juibo	··· ···	•••	107. Of fathers.
***	Nābā ji		*** ***	108. To fathers.
4	Nābā gā juibo.		******	109. From fathers.
	Kepāte āmyau or aya .	Aiā	Sā-mai	110. A daugnter.
***	Aya pāte ah			111. Of a daughter.
*** ***	Ауајі	•••	******	112. To a daughter.
*** ***	Pāte la aya	••• •••	800 100	113. From a daughter.
***	Kāni aya	*** ***	*** ***	114. Two daughters.
*** ***	Aya dolumbro	, *** ***	*** ***	115. Daughtera.
******	Aya jipo	*****	>01.050	116. Of daughters.
******	Aya lumbro			117. To daughters.
******	Ah lumbro (sic)	••• •••	******	118. From daughters.
*** ***	Khenge premu po	Mowā prā	Adjectives follow their sub- stantives.	119. A good man.
*** ***	Khenge premu ji		*** ***	120. Of a good man.
	Khenge premu jiä	*****		121. To a good man.
100 950	Khenge premu polumbro .	•••••		122. From a good man.
***	Kāni prāya premu	***	*** ***	123. Two good men.
*** ***	Pra lumbro	•••	*****	124. Good men.
*** ***	Prā imo dolumbro	******	*** 35	125. Of good men,
*** ***	Prā imo dolumbro ji	******	*****	126. To good men.
494 300	Prā imo pradoibu imo dolumbroji.	*** ***	*** ***	127. From good men.
*****	Khenge prādu aya	Mīyā prā	100 500	128. A good woman.
******	Kepāte (or khenge) nāpā khi ah (sio).	Prā-im=bad (good-not)	Mo-phān=bad (? not-good)	129. A bad boy.
348 443	Prādu aya	*** ***	111 119	130. Good woman.
0+> 004	Khenge mipathy äku (sic).	Mīyā a prā-im		131. A bad girl.
444 989	Prādu, praijah, or athoprā .	Prā	Kasīt .	. 132. Good.
141.000	Lapraibo pradaibo	***	*** 160	133. Better.

	Engl				Aka (Darrang).		Eastern Dafla (Hamilton	on).	Dafiā (Robinson	ı) .	Miri.
134.]	Best-	•	•	1	Ere u-m-du	•	Müllüj i- hām āl -y ā-dâ	. •	Pāng ā-le-yā		Āpui lokkem ai-dā (lit. all from good is).
135. 1	Bigh ⊓	•			U-pseu, e-pshü .		Au-dâ		Āo-pā		Ōid
13 6 . I	Higher				E-de e-pshü-phâ .		Au-yā-dâ		Āo-yā		Ōi-yā ,
137.]	Highest	•			De-du-na e-pshü-phâ .		Müllüjā-hām au-yā-dâ		Pāng āo-yā .		Āpui lokkem ōi
138.	A horse				Phu-grā abā		Ghura		*** ***		•••••
139	A mare			\cdot	Phu-grā emi-ni abā	$\cdot $	Ghuri		*****		•••••
14 0. 1	Horses				Phu-grā aniya .				*** ***		,***
14 1.]	Mares	•	•		Phu-grā emi-ni aniya	:			•••		*** ***
142	A bull		•		Phu-lu <u>kh</u> u urbā ab ā		Sa ha-b		Sü-bō		••••••
143	A cow		•		Phu-lu <u>kh</u> u jachu abā		Sa ha-n		Sü-ne		•••••
144.]	Bulls		•		Phu-lu <u>kh</u> u urbā aniya		Sa ha-b edē	,	•••••		•••••
L 4 5. (Cows				Phu-lu-khu jachiu aniya		Sa ha-n edē	•	*** ***		•••••
146	A dog				Sü-lõ um-bâ abā .		Īkī kib	•	Ki-bō		Eki
147.	A bitch				Sü-lö ami-ni abä .		Īkī kīn		Ki-ne		Eki kina
148.	Dogs		•		Sü-lö ne-phe		Īķi ki-b atchamma .	•			Ēkī kiding
149.	Bitches		•		Sü-lő am-ni ne-phe .		Īki kin atchamma .	,	•••••		Eki kina kiding
150.	A he goa	t			Khesi um-bâ abă		Sibin bim-pa		Bob-lā		Shâ-ben ben-bâ
151.	A female	goat		•	Khesi ami-ni abā .	•	Sibin bīn-na		Be-ne		Shâ-ben ben-na
152.	Goats	•	•	•	Khes-na		Sībin edē				Shâ-ben ki-ding .
153.	A male d	eer	•	•	Phu um-bâ	•	Shudam dum-ba		Chor-bō		No general word. Shishūk- Sambar; shūk-bå=male ditto; dūmshūng=Hog
154.	A female	deer			Phu ami-ni		Shudum dum-na		Chor-ne		deer; shū-bå=male ditto etc., etc. Ditto; female Sambar shī-
155.	Deer		•		Phu		Shudum atchamma				shük shük-na—Hog deer= dümshüng shü-na, etc., et Simon (also means any ani
156.	I am				Nah du-chha		Ngâ dâ-dna	•	~		mal). Ngå düng (or dāk, or di
157.	Thou art	i •	•		Ba du-cho-mā , .		Nû dû-dna .				and so throughout). Nå düng
158.	He is			•	E du-chho .		Ma dû-dna .	• .			Bui düng
159	We are	•	•		Ni du-chho . ,		Ngâ-lu dâ-dna		******		Ngå-lü düng
160.	You are	•			Jah du-cha-ma		Nâ-lu dâ-dna .				Nâ-lũ dững

Abor (when different from Miri)	Chulikātā or Taying Mishmi (Campbell).	Digiru Mishmi (Robinson and Needham).	Mijū Mishmi (Robinson and Needham).	English.
100 000	Tapum praibe	300.00	737 294	134. Best.
*** ***	Ruendo	Tazei		135. High.
800 BPG	Buendo ji iruendo	701101	******	136. Higher.
*** ***	Tapume ji ruendo		••••	137. Highest.
*** ***	Kepāte geera			138. A horse.
* 1M +m	Kepāte geera āpi		200 010	139. A mare,
900 507	Geera pajaibon		cab oc.	140. Horses.
300 000	Geera āpidū	416 cht ,	****	141. Marea
	Kepāte āheprā. ādeva mājū	410 000 /	•••	142. A bull.
949 444	Kepāte mājū kro	850 850	******	143. A cow.
***	Mājū āhe pelā doi-ebon .	***		144. Bulls.
000 000	Mājā dolumbro	*** ***	boo eea	145. Cows.
*** ***	Kepāte ikū	Ngui kāri	Kwi rahār	146. A dog.
*** ***	Kepāte ikā kro,	Ngul tāpi	Kwi naŭ	147. A bitch.
*** 98%	Ikū pājā, ikū dū			148. Dogs.
400 000	Äpi iktī doi-ebon	940 000	400 500	149. Bitches.
*****	Kepāte maji		*** ***	
*** ***	Kepāte āpi akro maji	A07 040	9A 914	150. A he goat.
*** ***	Maii dalambaa	******	••• •••	151. A female goat.
	7	***************************************	******	152. Goats.
	Vantia tai ti	401.000		153. A male deer.
ŀ		******	*** ***	154. A female deer.
ŀ	Mājo	-~-		155. Deer.
		Hiếch	*****	156. I am.
	Ngio muji ga		1945 ABB	157. Thou art.
	Ngio-aon ji	******	134 - 21	158. He is.
11	Ehundna jigā	*** >2%	410.404	159. We are.
······ 1	Chund ji ji		*** ***	160. You are.

Eglish.	Aka (Darrang).	Eastern Dafia (Hamilton).	Dafiā (Robinson).	Miri.
161. They are	Na du-chhayā .	Büllu då-dna	. , ,,,,,,	Bū-lū dūng
62. I was	Phu e-du-chan, nå du-sö	Ngà dà-nma	Ngō dōng-ponā	Ngå düngai (or dägai, and
163. Thou wast	Jah-phu du-chha-mā.	Nå då-nma	No dong-ponā	Nå düngai
.64, He was	E du-me-re-deh	Ma då-nma	Mā dong-ponā	-Buidüngai
65. We were	Ni du-chan	Ngå-lu då-nma	Ngō-lu dông-ponā	Nga-lū dūngai
66. You were	Ba du-chaua	Nå-lu då-nma	No-lu dong-pons	Nå-lü düngai .
67. They were	Na du-chu	Büllu då-nma	Mā-lu döng-pọnā	Bū-lū dūngai.
68. Be	*** ***	Dā-tā	****	No word
69. To be	*** ***	Lyi-dba	*****	1000 900
70. Being	. *** ***		200200	808 980-
71. Having been	•••••	Dâ-tla	******	*******
72. I may be . , .	444.444	401 900	don blib	800.400 ₁ e
73. I shall be	Nå da-nie	Lyitlyinne	000 000	pag W60 '
174. I should be	bee 644	•••••	******	106 000;••
175. Beat	Gigneh	Ma-tà	Mo-to	Pā-tokā
176. To beat	Gi-phi-neh	Ma-ta-ba. ,	Mo-tebo	Pā-kā-pū-for the purpose of
177. Beating	Gi-dah	Ma-ly-ha	Мо-пеуй	Pā-lā (lā is present an
178. Having beaten .	Gi-le-neh	Ma-po-la	Mō-pe-lō	past participial suffis)
179, I beat	Nah gi-neh	Nga ma-dna.	Ng5 m5-d5	Ngå på-dûng
180. Thou beatest	Ba gü-eh	Nå ma-dna	. No mo-do	Nå på-düng
181. He beats	E gi-da-eh	. Ma ma-dua	. Ma mo-do	Bui pā-düng
182. We beat	. Ni gi-neh	. Ngà-lu ma-dna.	. Ngō-lu mō-dō	Ngå-lū pā-dūng
183. You beat	. Jah güch	. Ná-lu ma-dna	. No-lu mo-do	Nå-la pa-düng
184. They beat .	Na gi-dā	Büllu ma-dna	. Mā-lu-mō-dō	Bü-lü pā-düng.
185. I beat (Past Tense)		. Ngi ma-t-namma .	. Ngō mō-ра-па	Ngå pā-tō
186. Thou beatest (Pac Tense).		. Nå ma-p-namma .	. Ко-то-ра-па	Nå pā-tō.
187. He beek (Past Tense) N. A. G634	I s-da	Ма та-р-патта	Mā mō-pa-nā	Bui pā-tō

······································			-	
Abor (when different from Miri).	Chulikātā or Taying Mishmi (Campbell).	Digaru Mishmi (Bohinson and Needham).	Mijū Mishmi (Robinson and Needham).	English.
946.4+4	Heaibu ia ji jigā		* ******	161. They are.
200 200	Ngialumbro igapo .	. Hā dī-yā	 }	162. I was.
900 000	Ngio jigja (? jigā)		******	163. Thou wast.
•••	Ngio-āpu muji ji			164. He was.
****	Ehundna jigā		•	165. We were.
695-65q-	Ehund mu jigi		- *** ***	166. You were.
***	Hesibu mujigā		- •••	167. They were.
. 000 ***	Aibo ah apa	Di-na	· •••••	168. Be.
120	Äji po yi	- ******	- 	169. To be.
•••	Ngā-ā	* ******		170. Being.
•••	Eja jipo mijah	* ***	*** ***	171. Having been.
*** ***	Ngialumbro eyokachna .	• ' 890 tot		172. I may be.
****	Ngialumbro kachna	- tee 100		173. I shall be.
991 -184	Ngialumbro mumota āpā .	·	* ******	174. 1 should be.
•••••	Nūpā āhū prā wā	Hābā-nā	Pong-shū	175. Beat.
•••••	Nūpā āhū prā wā	.000 044	***	176. To beat.
	Ähū lyāh	****	·	177. Beating.
	Ähū lyāh	. 611.111		178. Having beaten.
500 010	Ngialumbro āhu lyāh .	Hã hábá	(?) Ki.pang	179. I beat.
- 500.004	Ngio āhū lyāh			180. Thou beatest.
******	Ngio-apu ahu lyah		- 	181. He beats.
	Ehundna prālā	- • •••••		182. We beat.
	Ehund ähű lyáh	·		183. You beat.
	Heaibu ähü lyäh .		*** ** ,	184. They beat.
\$40.004	, qq+ o+o	Hã hábá-yà ((?) Ki pang-gā	185. I beat (Past Tense).
049 898	, ******	- 141.00	*******	186. Thou bentest (Past Tense).
, for we '	****	rea boo.	*****	187. He beat (Enst Tense).

	English.	Aka (Darrang).	Eastern Daflä (Hamilton).	Dafiā (Robinson).	Miri.
18	3. We beat (Past Tense).	Ni shing	Ngâ-lu ma-t-namma	Ngō-lu mō-pa-nā	Ngå-lū pā-to
18	. You beat (Past Tense)	Jah ish-da	Nå-lu ma-p-namma	Nō-lu mō-pa-nā	Nå-l ū pā-tō
19). They beat (Past Tense)	Nā ish-da	Būllu ma-p-namma	Mā-lu mō-pa-nā	Bū-lū pā-to
19	l. I am beating	Nah guin	Ngå ma-s-danna		Ngâ pā-lā d ūng
19	2. I was beating	Nah gui-chhua	Ngâ ma-lya-dâ-nma		Ngâ pā-lā dūngai
19	3. I had beaten	Nah gui-chhua	Ngâ ma-nma		*** ***
19	4. I may beat	Nah gui-phi-neh	Ngå ma-kin-då		*** ***
19	5. I shall beat	Nah si-ne	Ngå ma-n-pü	Ngō mō-bō	Ngâ pā-yē or pā-p ā
19	6. Thou wilt beat	Bashere	Nâ ma-n-pü	No mo-bo	Nâ pā-yē
19	7. He will beat	Is-ne	Ma ma-n-pü	Mā mō-bō	Bui pā-yē
19	8. We shall beat	Ni s-ne	Ngâ-lu ma-n-pü	Ngō-lu mō-bō	Ngā-lū pā-yē
19	9. You will beat	Jah ishe:	Nâ-lu ma-n-pü	Nō-lu mō-bō	Nâ-lū pā-yē
20	0. They will beat	Nā s-ne	Büllu ma-n-pü •	Mā-lu.mō-bō	Bū-lū pā-yē
20	l. I should beat	Nah de i gi-ne			*** ***
20	2. I am beaten	Nah gi-dah	******		•••
20	S. I was beaten	Nah gi-dah su yā			*** ***
20	4. I shall be beaten .	Nah si-ngeh bua	***	•••	*****
20	5. I go	Nah khā-ne-be	Ngå ū-dna	Ngō āngne-dō	Ngå gi-düng
2	6. Thou goest	Ba khā-bueh	Nå ü-dna	No angue-do	Nå gi-düng
2	07. He goes	E khā-neh	Ma ū-dna	Mā āngne-dō	Buigi-düng
2	08. We go	Ni khā-ne-be	Ngå-lu ü-dna	Ngō-lu āngne-dō	Ngâ-lũ gĩ-dũng ` .
2	09. You go	Jah khā-bueh	Nâ-lu ü-dna	Nō-lu āngne-dō	Nå-l u gï-dung
2	10. They go	. Nā khā-de-be	. Büllu ü-dna	Mā-lu āngne-dō , ,	Bū-lū gī-dūng
1	ll. I went	Nah din	Ngå ü-n-ma	Ngō āngne-pa-nā	Ngági-kā
4	212. Thou wentest .	. Ba di-mā	. Nå ū-nma	No angne-pa-na	Nå gi-kā
!	313. He went	E din	. Ма й-пта	Mā āngue-pa-nā-	Bui gi-kā
	214. We went	. Ni khā-m-bi	Ngå-lu ti-nma	Ngō-lu āngne-pa-nā	Ngā-lū gī-kā

Abor (when different from Miri).	Chulikātā or Taying Mishmi (Campbell).	Digāru Mishmi (Robinson and Needham).	Mījū Mishmi (Bobinson and Needham).	English.
*** ***				188. We beat (Past Tense).
*****		******		189. You beat (Past Tense).
·····				190. They beat (Past Tense).
	Ngialumbro mujiji lyāh .		(?) Ki pong meng	191. I am beating.
*** ***	Ngialumbro igāpo muja .			192. I was beating.
•••••	Ngialumbro āhū muja lyāh			193. I had beaten.
•••	Ngialumbro padunëpya āhū		•••••	194. I may beat.
••• •••	Ngialumbro āhū prāwā .	Hã hābā-ndē	(P) Ki pōng yung	195. I shall beat.
•••••		•••	*****	196. Thou wilt beat.
*** ***		•••		197. He will beat.
*** ***	······ _.	•••		198. We shall beat.
***	····	•••	•••••	199. You will beat.
****		P00	•••••	200. They will beat.
*** ***	Ngialumbro āhū proa (P prāwā) lyāh.	*** ***		201. I should best.
040 000	Ngialumb shū lai	*** ***		202. I am beaten.
201 000	Ngialumbro āhū proa (? prāwā) lyāh.	*** ***		203. I was beaten.
200.000	Ngialumbro na-āhū prāwā .		*** ***	204. I shall be beaten.
Substitute en for gi	Ngialumbro bā prāwā yah .	Нã bō	(?) Ki phai	205. I go.
200.000	Ngio bā nā lah	•••••	*** ***	206. Thou goest.
600 604	Ngio-āpu bā lyah	******	******	207. He goes.
002.500	***	••• ••• `	•••••	208. We go.
004.000	•••	*** ***	******	209. You go.
*****		*** 1**	946 250	210. They go.
200	Ngialumbro bā byah (? lyāh).	Hã bō-yā	(?) Ki phai-gā	211. I went.
	Ngio bā na bah (? lyāh) .		*** ***	212. Thou wentest.
	Ngio-āpu bālagā edya		A40-400	213. He went.
٥,	.3	<u>.</u>		214. We went.

	English,	Aka (Darrang).	Eastern Daflä (Hamilton).	Dafiā (Robinson).	Miri.		
215.	You went	Jah khammā	Nâ-lu û-nma	No-lu āng-ne-pa-nā	Nâ-lũ gĩ-kā		
216.	They went	Nā khā-de-bi	Büllu ü-nma	Mā-lu āng-ne-pa-nā	Bū-lū gī-kā		
217.	Go	Khā-bueh	Úmi	Äng-ne	Gī-tokā		
18.	Going	Di-deh	U-ly-hå	•••••	Contraction		
19.	Gone	Khā-me-bi	Ŭ-pela	·····	Gi-la		
20.	What is your name? .	Ba nini han chenia? .	Nå amin-a hog?·	No mang-men hogo ? .	Nå-ka ämuin inkwå-na? Your name what?		
21.	How old is this horse?	Phu-grā adiat ki-nia-ba? .	Så ghurā sī hogad-ja akkha- denna ?		Si-görā-si adit-kā mūjī This-horse-this how old dūng? is ?		
22.	How far is it from here to Kashmir?	Aiya Kashmir ke-nia ra-da?	Såka Kashmīr hå-ba hagad- gå ä-då-då ?		Kashmir-deg såk Kashmir-country from-her adit-kå mote dak ? how far is ?		
23.	How many sons are there in your father's house?	Bau e-niya mu- <u>kh</u> u sā ke- nia-dah ?	Nå åb-ga nām-h å kå-w- a hagad-gå då-dne ?		Nå-ka båbü-ka åküm-li Your fáther's house-in kö-milvong adit-kå child-male how-man dùng?		
224.	I have walked a long way to-day.	Nah u e-ra-goio din	Ngå sålo ädå älgå ga-pe- namma.		Silo ngå båjs-pü gi-tö. To-day I much went.		
225.	The son of my uncle is married to his sister.	Āva sei sām gri-dain	Ngå acch-ga kå ha hå buir- mam nänma.	,i	Ngâ-ka pai-ka au bui-ki My ûncle's son his buirma yamnê-lä-tō. sister married.		
226.	In the house is the saddle of the white horse,	Phu-grā grou saio zin gne luri-du-ge du.	Hå nām ārrühâ ghura püllū- ga jin-e då-då.	 .	Ekum šrā-lā yēsīna gorā-ks House in white horse's jin dūng. saddle is.		
227.	Put the saddle upon his back.	Zin sai gne luri-du-goio age laoye.	Jin hām hâ lāng auwā ap-tâ.		Jin bui-ka lämkü-li Saddle his back-on më-tokä. put.		
228	. I have beaten his son with many stripes.	E-sau sai nau guin	Hâ kâ-am ngâ ēgâ jinma		Ngâ bui-ka, au-em bâjē-pī I his son much pā-tō. beat.		
229	He is grazing cattle on the top of the hill.	Tu ge phu du-ge phu-l <u>kh</u> u rawkhri-da-ya.	Ha güddā au-wâ mindui sa rekh-dâ.		Bui ādī tais. lā görū He hill top on cattle rā-ki-dūng.		
230	. He is sitting on a horse	Suin e-lâ sei phu-grā e-zui-	Ha ghurā au-wā san lye-ku		keeping. Bui ursing keeg-la gori		
	under that tree.	gui-neh re-da.	hâ dâ-dna.	••••	He tree below horse tail-la dung.		
231	. His brother is taller than his sister.	E-nü-mi i-ama pshü-pho-da	Hâ bor hâ buir-mam auâ-yă dâ.		Bui-ka buirâ bui-ka buirm His brother his sister lok-ke bâttêdek. from bigger.		
232	2. The price of that is two rupees and a half.	E-gnu takarphu kahiya e-phiriä.	Hå dor ha taka bär-nyi-gå lä a-doli-gå.		Da ättär-ka ärö That article's pric bär-nyi-kä läng ädüli. ³ rupess-two and half.		

Miris have no word for grazing; rā-hi-ding, is keeping.
 Miris have no word for half-rupes.

Lbor (whe	a different from Miri),	Chulikātā or Taying Mishmi, (Campbell).	Digëru Mishmi (Robinson and Needham).	Miji Mishmi (Bobinson and Needham).	Efiglish.
				******	215. You went.
	*** ***	*****	*****	•••••	216. They went.
	*** ***	Bā lauji or bāladra	Bō-nā	Phai-shū.	217. Go.
,		Bamish		*** ***	218. Going.
	***	Bābyah (? lyāh)		ee- 175	219. Gone.
	24* 10h	New siladra āmu P	***		220. What is your name?
	******	Heya geerā mag phiāhā? .	***	••••	221. How old is this horse?
	***	Ejanība ba Kashmir ajige mag phiāhā?	******		222. How far is it from here to Kashmir ?
	4*****	New nābā ah jiji gā ? .	*****		223. How many sons are there in your father's house?
	******	Nga etani mala guge mya la aghuha.			224. I have walked a long way to-day.
	.	Heya athi ebo ah yabi gyah.			225. The son of my uncle is married to his sister.
	••••	Nga kua (? uka) andye lapna geerā ayah jiji payā			226. In the house is the sad- dle of the white horse.
		Andye lamra puru .			227. Put the saddle upor
	••••••	News nga midu hulā pata			228. I have beaten his sor with many stripes.
	***	E heiā tā āng gupu maj halni.			229. He is grazing cattle of the top of the hill.
-	,	Heia aganuah dābo ē hei geerā ja jigya.	<u></u>		230. He is sitting on a hors under that tree.
	504 504	Ah heiā apia aheya athi ruend.			231. His brother is talle than his sister.
	- -	Aheya aji geya è mu kar atigë ayho.	ri		232. The price of that is tw rapees and a half.

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•	English.	Aka (Darrang).	Eastern Dafië (Hamilton).	Dafia (Robinson).	Miri.
2 33.	My father lives in that small house.	Nah āu bugia e-mi-sa-na ngya-ga re-da.	Ngâ āb-a hâ nām ainyū hâ dâ-dna.	******	******
234.	Give this rupee to him	Takarphu sei i jya	Så dhan säm häm ji-tå .	******	Sim mürkong sim buim This rupee this him-to bi-tokä. give.
235.	Take those rupees from him.	Aiya takarphu senai la-chhe.	Hâ dhan hām hâka nō-tâ .		Dem mürkong dem bui-kı Those rupees those him lok-ke la-toka. from take
2 36.	Beat him well and bind him with ropes.	U-di-neh gi-neh seizaya khilineh veuya.	Hām ālba jitla ākhā hâl lelap-tâ.	••• •••	Buim ai-pū pā-lā shorī l Him well beating rope wi rin-tokā. bind.
237	Draw water from the well.	Khu-geri goio khu lauye .	Tuk tā-là isah bū-tà	*** ***	No word for "weil."
23 8.	Walk before me .	Na-bra duye	Ū-cho-lyā-tâ	600 000	Ngå-ka kërä-pü gi-tok Me-of front-wise go.
239.	Whose boy comes be-	Ba-phumiya zi mu- <u>kh</u> u sä de-se-da-vah ?	Hīga kā-wa nā kā-ku-ā ūd-dē ?	······	Nå-ka mëlämpü sëkä a: Your behind whose so gi-düng? coming-is?
240.	From whom did you buy that?	Ba phai zuiya phu-niya la- vah ?	Nå säm hi-ga lokka renma ?	*** ***	Dem sëka lok-ke rëton ? That who from buy ?
24 1.	From a shopkeeper of the village.	Ne-thi-ya dokain a-sheya phu-niya lain.	Så nenga såk karman såkka.	*****	Dölüng dökändärl lok-ke Village shopkeeper from
	·				·
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Abor (when different from Miri).	Chulikātā or Taying Mishmi (Campbell),	Digāru Mishmi (Robinson and Needham).	Mījū Mishmi (Robinson and Needham).	English.
	Ngā nābā nāah hi majia jigya.	******		233. My father lives in that amall house.
 .	Eja pro premē ha ala .	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·		234. Give this rapee to him.
• •	Ahaia ē hemahē pau āhū hohā āgay.			235. Take those rupees from him.
	Pre igny hūp jibu eja al bion jijiabā.		 .	236. Beat him well and him him with ropes.
	Eu poma ajia māji bogen .	*** 44.		237. Draw water from the well.
******	Agu pragē lāma	*****	>>× 844	238. Walk before me.
	Nas mita asia ah iga yaba?	••• ···		239. Whose boy comes: be- hind you?
	Esu ayga ne ayha isima loga lah ?	••••		240. From whom did you buy that?
******	An ma kheng gê abi ji ehenia	······	•••	241. From a shopkeeper of the village.
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		•	- 12	
•				N A G _641

ADDENDA MINORA.

VOLUME III—PART I.

Page xiv.—Opposite the entry for page 369, read 'Chaurasya'.

Page 2.—Substitute the following for the Table on this page :-

	,			'NT			Number of Sprakers.						
•	•	'Name of Group.									Estimated Number.	Census of 1901.	
Tibetan			•	•			•	•	•	•	•	205,508	235,229
Himalayan	•	•			•	•	٠		•			194,234	190,585
North Assa	m		•	•	•	•				•		36,910	41,731
Bodo .		:	•						•	•		618,659	596,411
Nāgā .	•		•				•	•				292,799	247,780
Kachin		,	•	•		•			•	•		1,920	125,775
Kuki-Chin		•				•		•	•			567,625	624,149
Burmese		•	•			•		•		•		62,652	7,498,794
									То	TAL	•	1,980,307	9,560,454

The Tibetan figures in the first column include 13°, 678, the estimated number of speakers of Baltī and Purik.

Page 13.—To the list of authorities on Tibeto-Burman languages, add the following:—

Hodson, T. C.—Notes on the Numeral Systems of the Tibeto-Burman Dialects. Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, 1913, pp. 315ff.

Page 16.—On this page a table is given showing the rough local estimates prepared in the preliminary operations of the Survey. The following are the final estimates for Tibetan and its dialects.

•										T	TAL	••	205,508
Lhoke .		•	٠	•	•		-	•	•	•	•	•	5,079
Dä-njong-kä						•	•			•		`•	20,000
Sharpa .	•		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	• .	·•	-:	900
Garhwal dialect						•	•		•	•	•	•	4.300
Jad . '.			•		•	•	•	•	•		•	•	106
Nyamkat .		•		•	•	•	•	•	•	*	•	•	1,544
Spiti dialect		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	3,548
Lahul dialect		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	٠	•	1,579
Ladakhi .		•		•	·.	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	29,806
Balti and Purik		•		•		•			•	•	•	•	130,678
l'hetan unspecifi	ed		•	•		•		•	•		•	•	7,968
													Speakers.
													Number of

Page 32.—Add to the list of authorities on Balti:

BIBLE.—Gospel of St. Matthew in Balti. British and Foreign Bible Society. Lahore, 1903.

Page 42.—A fuller account of Purik has since appeared in Dr. T. Grahame Bailey's Linguistic Studies from the Himalayas (Asiatic Society Monographs, Vol. XVII, London, 1920), p. 1ff.

Page 140ff.—In heading of fourth column, for 'Ladakhi', read 'Ladakhi', and so throughout the List.

Page 140.—No. 22, Ladakhī column. - For 'khyo-rang-gi', read 'khyo-rang-ngi'.

Page 141, Nos. 10, 12 and 13, Spoken column.—Read 'thampa'. No. 20, same column, for 'kkyö', read 'khyö'.

Page 152, Ladakhī column, No. 82, read 'lang-ches'; No. 94, for 'chii', read'chi'; No. 96, add 'or ama'.

Page 158, No. 109, Spiti column.—For 'na', read 'na'.

Page 160, No. 141, Purik column.—For 'ghun-mā-un (-gun)', read 'ghun-mā-un, (-gun)'; No. 158, Raltā column.—For 'kho', read 'khō'.

Page 161, No. 151, both columns.—For 'ra-ma', read 'ra-mo'.

Page 164, Balti column, No. 175.—Read 'teang'; No. 182, read 'ngaya-se'.

Page 166, No. 179, Spiti column.—Read 'ng ?.

Page 168, No. 195, Ladakhī column.—Read 'ngā'.

Page 169, Nos. 195-200.- For 'rdung', read 'brdung'.

Page 170, Nos. 194 and 195, Spiti column.—For 'ngs', read 'ngs'.

Page 177, line 11 of Table.—Read 'Janggali'.

Page 204, line 3 .- Read 'Sunwar'.

Page 206, line 1 .- Read 'Magari'.

Page 209, Table of Pronouns.— Hosai and hos, he, are sometimes spelt asai, asae, achai, as.

Page 228, line 4 from bottom. - For 'chā-ri', read 'chhā-ri'.

Page 238, line 4.—Read' go-nun'.

Page 256, No. 47, Gurung column.—Read 'ā bā'.

Page 258, No. 68, Sunwar column.—Read 'shara'.

Page 209, No. 70, Pahri column.-Read 'kuju'.

Page 260, No. 81, Gurung column.—Read 'dhon, to'.

Page 260, No. 105, Sunwar column.—For 'nisi', read 'nishi'.

Page 261, No. 103, Page 263, Nos. 108, 112, 117, 121, and 126, Rong column.— For 'sa', read 'kā'.

Page 262, No. 128, Sunvar column.—For 'mishe', read 'mishi'.

Page 262, Nos. 129 and 131, Murmi column.—Read 'jhā-jhā'.

Page 263, No. 109, Rong column.—For 'lyang', read 'song'.

Page 263, Nos. 119-127, Nevoārī column.-For 'manu', read 'manu'.

Page 264, Nos. 143 and 145, Magar column.—Read 'nhyet'.

Page 264, Sunwar column, No. 153.—Read 'a-po'; No. 154, read 'a-mo'.

Page 264, No. 160, Murmī column.—Read 'ye-ni kāte'.

Page 265, Nos. 157 and 160, Rong column.—For 'ho-a', read 'ho gum'.

Page 266, No. 185, Murmī column.—Read 'ngāi'; No. 187, Gurung column, for 'chā-ji', read 'cha-ji'.

Page 267, Nos. 186 and 186, Pahrī column.—For 'chha', read 'chha'; No. 182, Read 'jā-ni'.

Page 268, No. 197, Gurung column.—For 'chā fi', read 'chā fi'; Nos. 191—195, and 201, Murmī column. For 'ngāe', 'ngae', read 'ngāi'.

Page 269, Newari column, No. 198.—For 'di-e', read 'di-i'; Nos. 213 and 214, for 'o-na' read 'o-na'.

Page 269, Rong column, No. 209.—For 'ho', read 'a-ya'; No. 214, for 'mong', read 'non'

Page 269, No. 210, and Page 271, No. 216, Pahri column.—For 'ho' read 'ho'.

Page 271, Nos. 215, and 216, Newari column.—For 'o-na', read 'o-na'.

Page 343.—In the heading of the Table, for 'Chouras'ya', read 'Chaurssya', and so also in the headings of the following pages.

Page 343, Thulung column, opposite 'one'.-For 'kolr', read 'kole'.

Page 369, lines 25, 26, 34.—For 'Chourasya', read 'Chaurasya'.

Page 408, Fourth column heading.—For 'Simbu', read 'Limbu'.

Page 408, Thāmi column, No. 17, for 'ai-mi,' read 'ai-mi, ni'; No. 20, for 'ninko', read na'.

Page 409, Khambu column, No. 20.—For 'immi', read 'am, in, ini'; No. 23, for 'ānā', read 'ān-ni'.

Page 409, No. 23, Rai column .- For 'anu', read 'an-ni'.

ADDENDA MINORA, VOL. III, PT.

Page 410, Dhīmāt column, Nos. 27 and 28.—For 'wan', read 'wang'; No. 32, for 'uāhāthong', read 'nhāthong'; No. 40, for 'pūrin', read 'pūring'; No. 52, for 'beval' read 'bē-val'.

Page 412, Dhīmāl column, Nos. 54 and 55.—For 'chan', read 'chān'; No. 56, for 'chandi', read 'chāndi'.

Page 413, No. 69, Rai column. - For 'bhii' read 'bhi'.

Page 416, No. 128, Yākhā column.—Read 'metnyung'.

Page 417, No. 110, Khambu column.—Read 'mimchha'.

Page 417, No. 129, Vāyū column.—Read noh'ka'.

Page 419, Nos. 143, and 145, Khambu column. - Read 'pih'r.

Page 419, Rai column, No. 144.—Read 'sarya'; No. 156, read 'ang'.

Page 420, Nos. 165-167, Yākhā column.—Read 'waingha', 'waiga-ha', 'waeha-zi',

Page 421, Nos. 163 and 164, Vayu column.—Read 'no-nu-m', 'no-mi'

Page 422, No. 207, Thāmi column.—Read 'dhā yā-du'.

Page 422, No. 207, Yākhā column.—Read 'u-khi'.

Page 422, Limbu column, No. 208.—Read 'pēgīgē'; No. 213, read 'khūnē'

Page 430, line 27.—For 'he' read 'the'.

Page 431.—Add the following to the List of Authorities on Kanawari;—

Bailey, Rev. T Grahame, D. Litt.—A Brief Grammar of the Kanauri Language, in Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, Vol. lxiii (1909), pp. 661ff.

" REV. T. GRAHAMS, D. LITT.—A Kanauri-English and English-Kanauri Vocabulary (Asiatic Society Monographs, Vol. 2011), London, 1911.

,, BEV. T. GRAHAME, D. LITT.—Linguistic Studies from the Himalayas (Asiatic Society Monographs. Vol. xvii), London, 1920. Pp. 46ff. an account of the Lower Kanauri dialect: pp. 78ff. an account of the Chitkhuli dialect.

Tika Ram Joshi, Pandit.—A Grammar and Dictionary of Kanawari . . . edited by H. A. Rose, I.C.S. Journal and Proceedings of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. v (1909), Extranumber. Calcutta, 1909.

BIBLE.—The Gospel of Mark in Kanauri.—British and Foreign Bible Society. Lahore, 1909.

Page 469, Title.—Read 'BUNAN'.

Page 476, line 3.—Read 'BUNÁN'.

Page 532, No. 14, Manchāţi column.—For 'ge', read 'gye'.

Page 536, No. 51, Kanāwarī column.—Read 'mi'; No. 52, read 'tsésmi'; Kanāshī column, read 'beiri'.

Page 540, Manchati column, No. 68.—Read 'rhang'; No. 69, read 'goan'.

Page 542, No. 69, Rangkus column.-For 'rai', read 'rai, ben'.

ADDENDA MINORA, VOI

Page 546, No. 88, Rangkas column.—For 'syti', read 'syti'.

Page 548, Kanāshī column, No. 130.—Read 'shobile'; Manchāṭī column, No. 129, read 'yō'; Nos. 130 and 131, read 'metsinī'.

Page 552, Kanāshī column, Nos. 138—141.—For 'rang', read 'rhang'; No. 147, for 'kuti', read 'kui'.

. Page 552, No. 154, Manchātī column.—For 'mingana', read 'mingana'.

Page 554, Rangkas column, Nos. 148 and 149.—For 'khvi' read 'khvi'; No. 150, for 'mal', read 'mal'; No. 157, for 'sisin,' read 'sisin'; No. 160, for 'gan', read 'gan'.

Page 560, Kanāshī column, No. 198, for 'ni', read 'ni'; No. 199, for 'k', read 'ki'.

Page 560, No. 213, Kanāw ri column.—For 'bigy', read 'bigy'.

Page 561, No. 207, Chamba Lahuli column.—Read 'yuad'.

Page 562, No. 210, Rangkas column.—For 'hve-jan', read 'hve-chan'.

Page 586.—Add to List of Authorities on Abor-Miri:—

LORRAIN, J. HERBERT.—A Dictionary of the Abor-Miri Language, with Illustrative Sentences and Notes. Shillong, 1910.

Page 632, No. 145, Aka column.—Rend 'jachu'.

Page 633, No. 146, Digaru Mishmi column.—Read 'ngui'.

